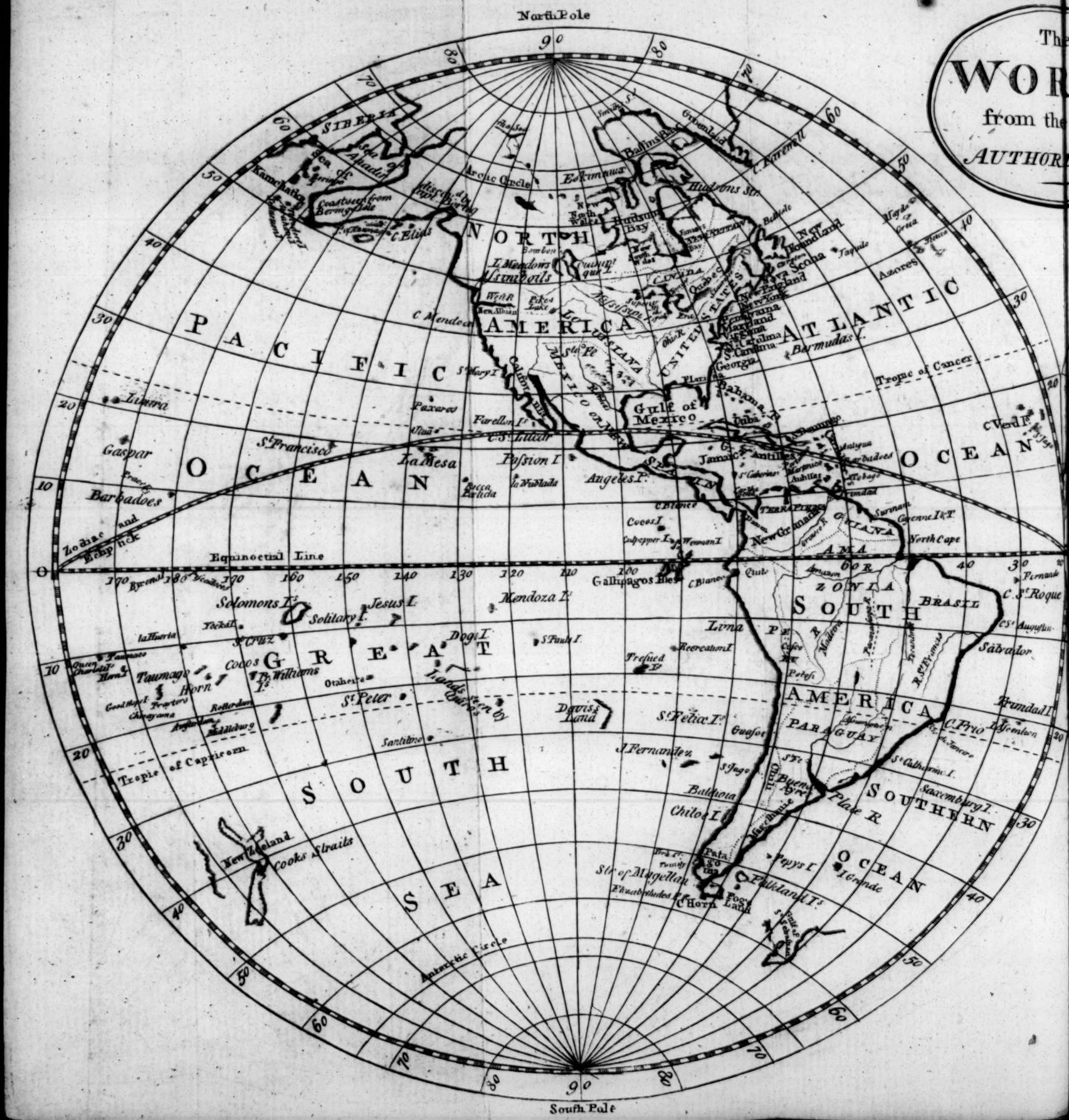

North Pole
South Pole
Equinoctial Line
Zodiac and Ecliptick
Tropic of Capricorn
Tropic of Cancer
Antarctic Circle
Arctic Circle
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTHERN OCEAN
NORTH AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
GREAT SOUTH SEA
SIBERIA
Kamchatka
Coasts of Beering
Coasts of Bermudas
Hudsons Str.
Baffins Bay
Greenland
Hudsons Bay
New Found Land
Scotia
Azores
Bermudas I.
C. Verd Is.
Gulf of Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Antilles
Barbadoes
Terra Firma
Guiana
New Granada
Peru
Chili
Paraguay
Brasil
Amazon R.
La Plata R.
Falkland Is.
Cape Horn
Magellan Str.
Solomons Is.
Jesus I.
Mendoza Is.
Galliagos Iles
Otaheite
Dogs I.
Easter I.
Davis Land
New Zeland
Cooks Straits
Gaspar
Barbadoes
Limma
Acapulco
California
Mexico
Lima
Chili
Buenos Ayres
Rio Janeiro
Cape Horn
Trinidad I.
St. Helena I.
Ascension
Fernando
St. Roque
Salvador
Cape Augustin
Cape Blanco
Cape Verd
North Cape
Cape Frio
Cape St. Antonio
Cape St. Catharine I.
Staaxemburg I.
Falkland Is.
Pepys I.
Port Desire
Port Famine
Terra del Fuego
Cape Horn
Strait of Magellan
Falkland Is.
Cape Horn

The

ORLD

m the best

THORITIES.

North Pole

South Pole

EASTERN OCEAN

NEW HOLLAND

SOUTHERN OCEAN

INDIAN OCEAN

NORTHERN OCEAN

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

SIBERIA

EASTERN TARTARY

WESTN TARTARY

CHINA

TIBET

INDIA

EMPIRE

PERSIA

TURKY

EUROPE

BARBARY

ZAARA

NEGROLAND

GUINEA

ETHIOPIA

AFRIC

ARABIA

Greenland

Iceland

Nova Zembla

Lapland

Sweden

Russia

Germany

France

Spain

Portugal

Italy

Black Sea

Caspian Sea

Aral Lake

Baikal Lake

Amoor R.

Kamtschatka

Sea of Kamtschatka

Yesso

Japan

Kinsai

Nanchang

Canton

Formosa

Philipp Isles

Marian Isles

Pagan

Borneo

Java

Sumatra

Celebes

Moluccas

New Guinea

Carolinas

Bay of Bengal

Ceylon

Lacka Dives

Malabar

Coromandel

Arabian Sea

Persian Gulf

Red Sea

Delhi

Ispahan

Usbecks

Kalmucks

Tobolski

Irtish R.

Yenisei R.

Lena R.

Kamtschatka R.

Wall of China

Yellow Sea

Pekin

Nanking

Fokien

Hainan

Gulf of Siam

Bay of Bengal

Andaman Is.

Bombay

Malabar Coast

Coromandel Coast

Gulf of Arabia

Mocha

Abyssinia

Nubia

Upper Egypt

Lower Egypt

Barbary

Algiers

Fez

Morocco

Canary Is.

Madera

Azores

Cape Verd Is.

Senegal R.

Gambia R.

Niger R.

Benin

Migurk

Jnjnro

Maha

Lower Magadoxa

Ethiopia

Zanguebar

Mozambique

Sofala

Monomotapa

Mountains of the Moon

Zambre R.

Congo R.

Loango

Benguela

Angola

Ethiopian Sea

Ascension I.

St Helena

Cape of Good Hope

Hottentots

Natal

Dos Picos

Brazil R.

Terra Australis

Tristan de Cunha

Gough's I.

Cape Circumcision

Meridian of London

Madagascar

Mauritius I.

Bourbon I.

St Paul's I.

Amsterdam I.

New I.

Nacklegaal

Marseveen

Dina I.

St John I.

Romeins

Comoro Is.

St Miguel

Pulvereera

Banks of Nazareth

Natal

Cocos

I Cloats

Coasts Land

Nuyts Land

Diemens Land

New Zealand

South Bay

Terra del Fuego

Falkland Is.

Cape Horn

Le Maire Str.

Magellan Str.

Patagonia

Brazil

Rio de la Plata

Paraguay

Peru

Chili

Mexico

California

Gulf of Mexico

Florida

Virginia

Carolina

Canada

Hudson's Bay

Labrador

Greenland

Davis Str.

Baffin's Bay

Hudson Str.

Cape Farewell

Iceland

Spitzbergen

Greenland

Nova Zembla

Lapland

Sweden

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Germany

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Mexico

California

Gulf of Mexico

Florida

Virginia

Carolina

Canada

Hudson's Bay

Labrador

Greenland

Davis Str.

Baffin's Bay

Hudson Str.

Cape Farewell

Iceland

Spitzbergen

A NEW

Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial

# GRAMMAR;

AND

# PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

# KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING,

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem, and the lateſt Obſervations.
II. A general View of the Earth conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.
III. The grand Diviſions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Iſlands.
IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.
V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, natural Curioſities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes.
VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.
VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any where obſerved upon the Face of Nature, ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.
VIII. The Hiſtory and Origin of Nations: their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, naval and military Strength, Orders of Knighthood, &c.
IX. The Genius, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Habits of the People.
X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.
XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curioſities.
XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Diſtances of principal Places from London.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged. II. A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY. III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events from the Creation to the preſent Time.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.
The ASTRONOMICAL PART by JAMES FERGUSON, F.R.S.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

Engraved by Mr. KITCHIN, Geographer.

The TENTH EDITION, Corrected.

LONDON,

Printed for CHARLES DILLY, in the Poultry; and G. G. J. and J. ROBINSON, in Pater-noſter Row.

1787.

# ADVERTISEMENT.

*THE many Editions through which this work hath paſſed, and the rapidity of the ſale, are ſtrong and ſufficient evidences of the approbation of the Public, and of their conviction of its utility and excellence.*

*The Proprietors, thus encouraged, have ſpared no expence, that* this new Edition *ſhould every way deſerve the general countenance and eſteem, in receiving every ſuitable correction and improvement.*

*Since the laſt Edition, in* 1783, *ſeveral valuable accounts of Travels and Voyages have been publiſhed, which have conſiderably added to the ſtock of Geographical knowledge. Theſe have been carefully peruſed, and from them, many intereſting particulars are now added to the deſcriptions of Ruſſia, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Spain, Switzerland, the two Sicilies, the Eaſt Indies, and other countries.*

*As this work is hiſtorical as well as geographical, the perpetual fluctuation of States and of human affairs, hath rendered ſome conſiderable additions and alterations neceſſary alſo in the Hiſtorical part. Such have been made in this Edition; and the hiſtory of each kingdom is brought down to the preſent time, with a particular enlargement on that of our own, ſince the laſt peace, and the eſtabliſhment of the Thirteen United States of America.*

*Great improvements have been made alſo in the Chronological part of the work, the origin of Nations, the noble and military Orders of Knighthood, &c. &c.*

*To make room for introducing new articles, and modern diſcoveries from approved authorities, ſo neceſſary to render the work more perfect; ſome parts of it which appeared too diffuſe have been abridged, and others leſs important have been omitted. Indeed alterations and corrections every where occur. The additions are too numerous to be here diſtinctly ſpecified. Though the bulk of the laſt Edition exceeded the preceding one, by Eighty pages, this which is now tendered to the Public exceeds the former full Eighty pages more.—A proof that great pains and attention have been employed to give the work a juſt and continued claim to general notice and approbation.*

May, 1785.

THE

THE

# PREFACE.

TO a man ſincerely intereſted in the welfare of ſociety and of his country, it muſt be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progreſs, and general diffuſion of learning and civility, which, within the preſent age, have taken place in Great Britain. Whatever may be the caſe in ſome other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this iſland, may boaſt of our ſuperiority to thoſe illiberal prejudices, which not only cramp the genius, but ſour the temper of man, and diſturb all the agreeable intercourſe of ſociety. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the ſchools of the philoſophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greateſt advantages which heaven has beſtowed on mankind, it is become as univerſal as it is uſeful.

This general diffuſion of knowledge is one effect of that happy conſtitution of government, which, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, was confirmed to us, and which conſtitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people poſſeſs little wealth, have little power, and conſequently meet with little reſpect; in Great Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of courſe, a proper ſhare of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their ſtudies; as the great body of the people, no leſs than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amuſed and inſtructed. Books have been diveſted of the terms of the ſchools, reduced from that ſize which ſuited only the purſes of the rich, and the avocations of the ſtudious, and are adapted to perſons of more ordinary fortunes, whoſe attachment to other purſuits admitted of little leiſure for thoſe of knowledge. It is to books of this kind more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that ſuperior improvement, which diſtinguiſhes them from the lower

ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this improvement, is the principal deſign of our preſent undertaking. No ſubject appears more intereſting than that we have choſen, and none ſeems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally uſeful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the ſublimeſt purſuit of mankind, it muſt be allowed is that which moſt nearly intereſts them, and to which their abilities are beſt adapted. And books of Geography, which deſcribe the ſituation, extent, ſoil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, ſciences, and arts of all the inhabitants upon earth, promiſe the beſt aſſiſtance for attaining this knowledge.

The Compendium of Geography, we now offer to the Public, differs in many particulars from other books on that ſubject. Beſides exhibiting an eaſy, diſtinct, and ſyſtematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an inſtructive, though compendious detail of the general hiſtory of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of a great many circumſtances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a ſtate, than moſt people ſeem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural geography, no one of theſe objects ſhould paſs unnoticed. The omiſſion of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only intereſting in itſelf, but which is abſolutely neceſſary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehenſive notion of the ſubject in general. We have thought it neceſſary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the hiſtory and preſent ſtate of learning, in the ſeveral countries we deſcribe, with the characters of ſuch perſons as have been moſt eminent in the various departments of letters and philoſophy. This ſubject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requiſite, when we conſider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. Theſe objects, indeed, till of late, ſeldom found a place in geographical performances; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or inſtructive

inſtructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting ſolely under the influence of avarice, the paſſion which firſt induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill-qualified to collect ſuch materials as are proper for gratifying our curioſity, with regard to theſe particulars. The geographer then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon ſuch ſubjects. In the courſe of the preſent century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirſt for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into diſtant lands. Theſe they have explored with a philoſophic attention; and by laying open the internal ſprings of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and ſtriking picture of human manners, under the various ſtages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifeſt impropriety, we could not but avail ourſelves of their labours, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In conſidering the preſent ſtate of nations, few circumſtances are of more importance than their mutual intercourſe. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern ſtates, and of which, therefore, we have never loſt ſight in the preſent undertaking.

We are ſenſible that a reader could not examine the preſent ſtate of nations with much entertainment or inſtruction, unleſs he was alſo made acquainted with their ſituation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have aſſumed their preſent form and appearance. This conſtitutes the hiſtorical part of our work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Inſtead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of news-paper occurrences, no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only ſuch facts as are intereſting, either in themſelves, or from their relation to objects of importance. Inſtead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the hiſtory of each country; ſuch an epitome as may be read with equal pleaſure and advantage, and which may be conſidered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and in treating of their particular hiſtory ſometimes carried our reſearches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it neceſſary, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch readers as are unacquainted with claſſical learning, to begin our hiſtorical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inſerting an account of the ancient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader, of comparing together not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but as they ſubſiſted in ancient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the hiſtory of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatiſe extant.

In the execution of our deſign, we have all along endeavoured to obſerve order and perſpicuity. Elegance we have ſacrificed to brevity: happy to catch the leading features which diſtinguiſh the characters of nations, and by a few ſtrokes to hit off, though not completely to finiſh, the picture of mankind in ancient and modern times.

What has enabled us to compriſe ſo many ſubjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omiſſion of many immaterial circumſtances, which are recorded in other performances of the ſame kind, and of all thoſe fabulous accounts or deſcriptions which, to the diſgrace of the human underſtanding, ſwell the works of geographers; though the falſity of them, both from their own nature and the concurring teſtimony of the moſt enlightened and beſt informed travellers and hiſtorians, be long ſince detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or leſs diffuſe, according to their importance to us as men, and as ſubjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both reſpects, deſerved the greateſt ſhare of our attention. Great Britain, though ſhe cannot boaſt of a more luxuriant ſoil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and ſuperior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the miſtreſs of the world: theſe are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political conſtitution, and the moderation of her religious ſyſtem. With regard to the Britiſh empire we have therefore been ſingularly copious.

Next to Great Britain, we have been moſt particular upon the other ſtates of Europe; and always in proportion as they preſent us with the largeſt field for uſeful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, an important ſyſtem of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thouſand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unreſtrained commerce.

Europe having occupied ſo large a part of our volume, Aſia next claims our attention; which, however, though in ſome reſpects the moſt famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or inſtruction. In Aſia, a ſtrong attachment to ancient cuſtoms, and the weight of tyrannical power, bears down the active genius of man, and prevents that variety in manners and character, which diſtinguiſhes the European nations.

In Africa the human mind ſeems degraded below its natural ſtate. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country ſo immerſed in rudeneſs and barbarity, beſides that it could afford little inſtruction, would be diſguſting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and ſciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, diſcover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy ſameneſs almoſt every where prevails; and the trifling diſtinctions which are diſcovered among them, ſeem rather to ariſe from an exceſs of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though theſe quarters of the globe are treated leſs extenſively than Europe, there is no diſtrict of them, however barren or ſavage, entirely omitted.

America, whether conſidered as an immenſe continent, inhabited by an endleſs variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deſerves very particular attention. The bold diſcovery, and barbarous conqueſt of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects, which, together with the deſcription of the country, deſervedly occupy no ſmall ſhare of this performance.

In treating of ſuch a variety of ſubjects, ſome leſs obvious particulars, no doubt, muſt eſcape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures ſketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuſe imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extenſive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, inſiſt upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed with care, by the beſt informed artiſts in theſe kingdoms, will, we hope, afford ſatisfaction. The ſcience of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from thoſe who are alone capable of giving it, ſtill remains in a very imperfect ſtate; and the exact diviſions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical ſurveys, are far from being well aſcertained. This conſideration has induced us to adopt the moſt unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables, which, if they give not the exacteſt account, afford at leaſt a general idea of this ſubject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical ſcience arrives at greater perfection.

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# INTRODUCTION.

## PART I.

### OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

### SECT. I.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY cannot be completely underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. But the ſcience which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called ASTRONOMY. Hence the neceſſity of beginning this work with an account of Aſtronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is that glorious luminary the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it; and which, together with the ſun, compoſe what aſtronomers have called the Solar Syſtem. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſix planets, which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the centre, or middle point of the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun) are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the three laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *ſuperior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe our earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt do it. We ſhall only therefore particularly conſider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall ſet down with ſuch explications as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth upon which we live, was long conſidered as one large extenſive plane. The heavens, above it, in which the ſun, moon and ſtars appeared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for the uſe or ornament of our earth: ſeveral reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needleſs to mention them, becauſe we have now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually ſailed round it: as from that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that ſurrounded the globe, ſailing eaſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame, after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving around a ball of wax.

The roundneſs of the earth being thoroughly eſtabliſhed, a way was thereby naturally opened for the diſcovery of its motion. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not tell what

ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as philoſophers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to gueſs pretty nearly at the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, juſt as every body that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to caſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in the time of a year. Now as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

Thus much being ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that, beſides the ſix planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are other ten bodies which move round three of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, and Saturn has five. Theſe are all called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was firſt attended to: and ſometimes they are called *ſecondary* planets, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, and Saturn, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are but two obſervations more, neceſſary for underſtanding the following table. They are theſe: we have already ſaid that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution; which would de-

prive mankind of the grateful viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the caſe—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to conſider what is meant by the *mean diſtances* of the planets from the ſun. In order to underſtand which, we muſt learn that the orbit, or path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the ſhape of a figure called an ellipſis, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun, and the mean diſtance of it is, that which is exactly betwixt its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the ſeveral Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

| Names of the planets | Diameters in Engliſh Miles | Mean diſtances from the ſun as determined from obſervations of the tranſit of Venus in 1761 | Annual periods round the ſun. | Diurnal rotation on its axis. | Hourly motion in its orbit. | Hourly motion of its equator. | Inclination of axis to orbit. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | y. d. h. | d. h. m. | | | |
| Sun | 890,000 | | | 25 6 0 | | 3,818 | 8° 0′ |
| Mercury | 3,000 | 36,841,468 | 0 87 23 | unknown | 109,699 | unknown | unknown |
| Venus | 9,330 | 68,891,486 | 0 224 17 | 24 8 0 | 80,295 | 43 | 75° 0′ |
| Earth | 7,970 | 95,173,000 | 1 0 0 | 1 0 0 | 68,243 | 1,042 | 23° 29′ |
| Moon | 2,180 | ditto | 1 0 0 | 29 12 44 | 22,290 | 9½ | 2° 10′ |
| Mars | 5,400 | 145,014,148 | 1 321 17 | 0 24 40 | 55,287 | 556 | 0° 0′ |
| Jupiter | 94,000 | 494,990,976 | 11 314 18 | 0 9 56 | 29,083 | 25,920 | 0° 0′ |
| Saturn | 78,000 | 907,956,130 | 32 167 6 | unknown | 22,101 | unknown | unknown |

The reader having obtained an idea of the ſolar ſyſtem from this table, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his reflection to what are called the *fixed ſtars*, which comprehend the luminaries above our heads that have not been explained. The fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar, and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond

magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable, which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner; yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can be ſeen at a time, by the bare eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the introduction of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſteed, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars, which is the moſt complete that has hitherto appeared. The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and one another, is of all conſiderations the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 160 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 162 millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of theſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having worlds revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun, and, as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. The motion of light, therefore, which though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us than we do in making a Weſt India voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have; nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render theſe objects viſible by reflexion. The ſtars therefore ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is no way probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from one another, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy*, and a mean opinion of the Divine

* Eſpecially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope; and, therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

Wiſdom: ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, *that* ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſea-ſhore: the ſpace they poſſeſs, being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although Saturn, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 4884 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond Saturn's orbit; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the ſun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded, that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, ſituated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is almoſt an infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from one another, as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is; each to beſtow light, heat, and vegetation on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt! what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands and thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity.

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

The *firſt people* who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the *ſhepherds* in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly from amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame thing; for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which philoſophers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the Plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent with a very little help from the fancy. But the conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were

given them by the ancients; and they are reckoned 21 *northern*, and 12 *ſouthern*; but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to 34, and of the ſouthern to 31. Beſide theſe, there are the 12 *ſigns* or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 repreſents ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time, we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe, progreſs, and revolutions in aſtronomy.

Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of ſenſe and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immoveable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 580 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had gone ſo far in this ſubject as to calculate eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon between the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood, from what we have already obſerved.) Pythagoras, a Greek philoſopher, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. The ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to all the prejudices of ſenſe and opinion, that it never made great progreſs, nor was ever widely diffuſed in the ancient world. The philoſophers of antiquity, deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, ſet themſelves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, who meaſure every thing by themſelves, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſt of all, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All theſe vaſt orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; and beſides that, in certain ſtated and periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called excentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with one another. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the Peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and publiſhed it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had been ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe, however, was ſtill immerſed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy. This occaſioned Copernicus to have few abettors, but many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the

defects

defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1586, to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem of his own, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem, notwithſtanding its abſurdity, met with its advocates. Longomontanus, and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of a great many ages, the firſt dawn of learning and taſte began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which diſcovered new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy indeed had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem, as a damnable hereſy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed the one half of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe, to make us juſt, virtuous, and humane: that, inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which in ſpeaking of natural things ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himſelf, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *Gravity* or *Attraction*, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder*.

SECT.

* Beſides the planets and ſtars mentioned above, we perceive, in the expanſe of the univerſe, many other bodies belonging to the ſyſtem of the ſun, that ſeem to have much more irregular motions. Theſe are the comets, that deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with the ſingular appearance of a train or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to obſerve or record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of a much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify or diſſipate any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of

## SECT. II.

### Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the Globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next Section. In handling this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears that it is the *real* motion of the earth, which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes, which always lead us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar, and in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere, on the oppoſite page.

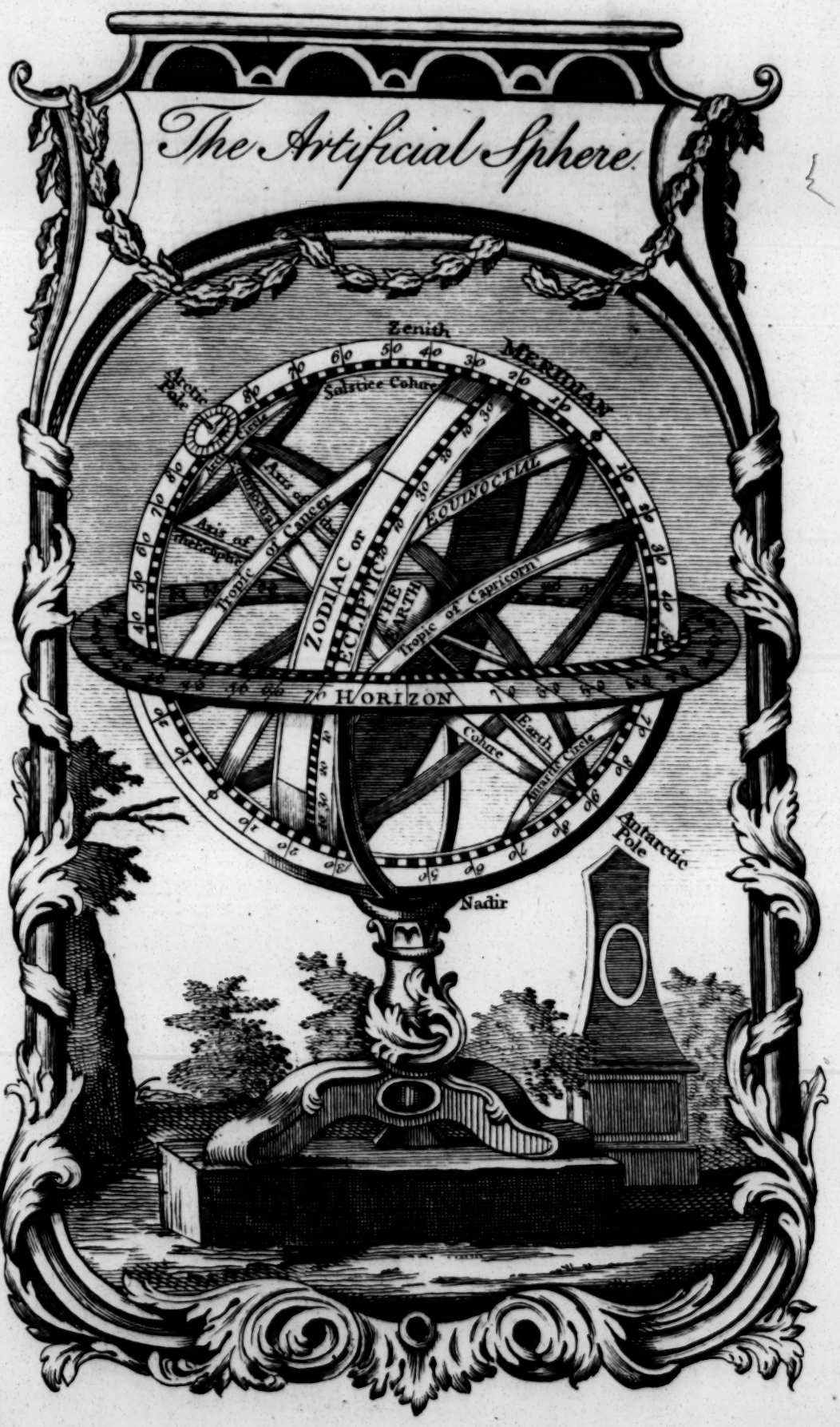
The ancients obſerved, that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth, being the largeſt of all, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved, that there were two

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the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at leaſt 21 comets belonging to our ſyſtem, moving in all manner of directions; and all thoſe which have been obſerved have moved through the etherial regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions, which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of theſe, that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable. This comet, at its greateſt diſtance, is about 11 thouſand 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about 490 thouſand miles; within leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemi-diameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit which is neareſt the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace, naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination, the vaſt diſtance between our ſun and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of the great Sir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit; but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, M'Laurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.

points

# The Artificial Sphere.



points in the heavens, which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They farther obſerved, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun, was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was alſo called the *Equinoctial Line*, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved that from the 21ſt of June to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence he ſet out, from the 22d of December to the 21ſt of June; they fixed *theſe points*, which they called *Solſtices*, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them; and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one ſide, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely. To expreſs this motion, they ſuppoſed two points in the heavens, equally diſtant from, and parallel to, this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, deſcribe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial ſphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called *Colures*, which ſerve to mark the points of the ſolſtices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients alſo obſerved, that when the ſun was in any point of his courſe, all the people inhabiting directly north and ſouth, as far as the poles, have noon at the ſame time. This gave occaſion to imagine a circle paſſing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artificial ſphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle repreſenting the bounds betwixt the two hemiſpheres, or half ſpheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

## SECT. III.

### The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the Doctrine of the GLOBE is meant the repreſentation of the different places and countries, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have repreſented the ſituation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the ſphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator,

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was known to aſtronomers, there was nothing more eaſy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the ſituation of places was determined, according as they lay on one ſide of the equator or another. The ſame may be obſerved of the other circles of the ſphere above mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to conſider this doctrine itſelf, or, in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though in ſpeaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it as a ſpherical or globular body; yet it has been diſcovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This matter occaſioned great diſpute between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom ſir Iſaac Newton, and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate ſphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, or north and ſouth points, and jutted out towards the equator; ſo that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and paſſing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be ſo long as a line drawn through the ſame centre, and paſſing through the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who ſent out a company of philoſophers towards the north pole, and likewiſe towards the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth part of a great circle in theſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of ſir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the caſe, with regard to our earth, only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not properly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe or ball, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table which we have exhibited, page 3, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the beſt obſervations: ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the convenience of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and an half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The Axis of the Earth is that imaginary line, paſſing through its centre, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one in the north, and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer, in determining the diſtance and ſituation of places; for the poles mark as it were the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; ſo that the nearer one approaches

to

to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator, and contrariwiſe, in removing from the poles, you approach the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the *greater* and *leſſer*. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are ſix in number, the leſſer only four.

EQUATOR.] The firſt great circle we ſhall ſpeak of is the *Equator*, which we have had occaſion to hint at aleady. It is called ſometimes the *Equinoctial*, the reaſon of which we have explained; and by navigators it is alſo called the *Line*, becauſe, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great Line drawn upon the ſea from eaſt to weſt, dividing the earth into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and which they were actually to paſs in ſailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] This great circle is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompaſſing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers very properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into the *ſenſible* and *rational*. The firſt may be conceived to be made by any great plane on the ſurface of the ſea, which ſeems to divide the heavens into two hemiſpheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe, and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears then that each place has its own ſenſible horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompaſſes the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*; the firſt exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it: of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the Zodiac (of which hereafter), viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this, you have the names of theſe ſigns. Next to this, the days of the month according to the old ſtyle, and then according to the new ſtyle. Beſides theſe, there is a circle repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs. The uſe of all theſe will be explained afterwards.

MERIDIAN.] The circle is repreſented by the *braſs ring*, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then meridies or mid-day, and then the ſun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude, at two places eaſt or weſt of one another at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked

on

on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.] The Zodiac is a broad circle, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed another called the *Ecliptic*, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Aries ♈ | — — March | 7. Libra ♎ | — — September |
| 2. Taurus ♉ | — — April | 8. Scorpio ♏ | — October |
| 3. Gemini ♊ | — — May | 9. Sagittarius ♐ | — November |
| 4. Cancer ♋ | — — June | 10. Capricorn ♑ | — December |
| 5. Leo ♌ | — — — July | 11. Aquarius ♒ | — January |
| 6. Virgo ♍ | — — Auguſt | 12. Piſces ♓ | — — February. |

COLURES.] If you imagine two great circles paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſolſtitial points Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures, the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure. Theſe divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which theſe paſs through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the firſt points of Aries, Libra, Cancer, and Capricorn; and theſe are all the great circles.

TROPICS.] If you ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured on the brazen meridian, and one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through theſe points.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear; the *ſouthern*, the *Antarctic*, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the four leſſer circles. Beſides theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others, which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The main deſign then of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth, in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus after it was diſcovered, that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed, according as they lay on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator. Beſides, after the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called Zones, from the Greek word ζωνη, which ſignifies a girdle; being broad ſpaces, like ſwathes, girding the earth about. That part of the earth between the

Tropics,

Tropics, was called by the ancients the *Torrid* or *Burnt Zone*, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſarts. This notion, however, has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls, than all the reſt of the earth together. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two *temperate zones* are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe, meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat. The two *frigid zones* lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones are thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the ſouthern temperate zone is very ſcanty; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and ſtill leſs of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern, temperate, and torrid zones, are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

CLIMATES.] But the diviſions of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This however is ſtill more neceſſary; becauſe it is of more importance to mankind, to know the ſituation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longeſt day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day from that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpace contained between theſe circles, Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This, therefore, was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhew, the deſign which firſt introduced it, may be better anſwered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt 24, the days increaſe by half hours; but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe: in the mean time we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhew in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator, to be known.

| Cl. | Latitude D. | M. | Breadth. D. | M. | Long. H. | D. M. | Names of Countries and remarkable places situated in every climate north of the equator. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 8 | 25 | 8 | 25 | 12 | 30 | I. Within the firſt Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſt in Africa; Malacca in the Eaſt Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America. |
| 2 | 16 | 25 | 8 | | 13 | | II. Here lie Abyſſinia in Africa; Siam, Madraſs, and Pondicherry in the Eaſt-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes in the W. Indies. |
| 3 | 23 | 50 | 7 | 25 | 13 | 30 | III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, Part of Bengal, in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadalupe, in the Weſt-Indies. |
| 4 | 30 | 25 | 6 | 30 | 14 | | IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire in Aſia; Gulf of Mexico, and Eaſt Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the Weſt-Indies. |
| 5 | 36 | 28 | 6 | 8 | 14 | 30 | V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean ſea; the Barbary coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem; Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nanking, in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America. |
| 6 | 41 | 22 | 4 | 54 | 15 | | VI. Liſbon, in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor; part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Peking, in China; Corea and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in N. America. |
| 7 | 45 | 29 | 4 | 7 | 15 | 30 | VII. Northern provinces of Spain; ſouthern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton in New England, North America. |
| 8 | 49 | 01 | 3 | 32 | 16 | | VIII. Paris, Vienna capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. America. |
| 9 | 52 | 00 | 2 | 57 | 16 | 30 | IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow in Poland; ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland. |
| 10 | 54 | 27 | 2 | 29 | 17 | | X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warſaw in Poland; Labrador, and New South-Wales, in North-America. |
| 11 | 56 | 37 | 2 | 10 | 17 | 30 | XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Mowſcow cap. of Ruſſia. |
| 12 | 58 | 29 | 1 | 52 | 18 | | XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolſki cap. of Siberia. |
| 13 | 59 | 58 | 1 | 29 | 18 | 30 | XIII. Orkney Iſles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden. |
| 14 | 61 | 18 | 1 | 20 | 19 | | XIV. Bergen in Norway; Peterſburgh in Ruſſia. |
| 15 | 62 | 25 | 1 | 7 | 19 | 30 | XV. Hudſon's Straits, North America. |
| 16 | 63 | 22 | | 57 | 20 | | XVI. Siberia, and the South part of Weſt Greenland. |
| 17 | 64 | 06 | | 44 | 20 | 30 | XVII. Drontheim, in Norway. |
| 18 | 64 | 49 | | 43 | 21 | | XVIII. Part of Finland in Ruſſia. |
| 19 | 65 | 21 | | 32 | 21 | 30 | XIX. Archangel on the White Sea, Ruſſia. |
| 20 | 65 | 47 | | 22 | 22 | | XX. Hecla, in Iceland. |
| 21 | 66 | 06 | | 19 | 22 | 30 | XXI. Northern parts of Ruſſia and Siberia. |
| 22 | 66 | 20 | | 14 | 23 | | XXII. New North Wales in North America. |
| 23 | 66 | 28 | | 8 | 23 | 30 | XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto. |
| 24 | 66 | 31 | | 3 | 24 | | XXIV. Samoieda. |
| 25 | 67 | 21 | | 1 | Month | | XXV. South part of Lapland. |
| 26 | 69 | 48 | | 2 | Months | | XXVI. Weſt-Greenland. |
| 27 | 73 | 37 | | 3 | Months | | XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis. |
| 28 | 78 | 30 | | 4 | Months | | XXVIII. Zembla Borealis. |
| 29 | 84 | 05 | | 5 | Months | | XXIX. Spitſbergen or Eaſt Greenland. |
| 30 | 90 | | | 6 | Months | | XXX. Unknown. |

The diſtance of places from the equator, or what is called their *Latitude*, is eaſily meaſured on the globe, by means of the meridian above deſcribed. For we have only to bring the place, whoſe latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and will be exactly over the place. Now this is the manner alluded to, by which the diſtance of places from the equator, is moſt properly diſtinguiſhed; but it could not be adopted, until the figure and circumference of the earth were known, after which it was eaſy to determine the number of miles in each 360th part or degree of this circumference, and conſequently know the latitude of places. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or ſouthern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, becauſe the poles, where they terminate, are at that diſtance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers ſuppoſe a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The interſection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, ſhews the true ſituation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The *Longitude* of a place is its ſituation with regard to its meridian, and conſequently reckoned towards the eaſt or weſt: in reckoning the longitude there is no particular ſpot from which we ought to ſet out preferably to another; but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the moſt weſterly of the Canary Iſlands, was conſidered as the firſt meridian in moſt of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be ſo many degrees eaſt or weſt of the meridian of Ferro. Theſe degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, becauſe, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that diſtance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like thoſe of latitude, but diminiſh in proportion as the meridians incline, or their diſtance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and ſo of the reſt. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are ſet down in the table in the following page.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen Meridian, and we ſhall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of theſe degrees into miles, according to the table given below, and, remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or 69½ Engliſh, we ſhall be able exactly to determine the diſtance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The diſtance of Places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly ſouth, north, eaſt, nor weſt, from one another, may be meaſured in a readier way, by extending the compaſſes from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For inſtance, extend the compaſſes from Guinea in Africa,

to

to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be 25 degrees, which at 60 miles to a degree, makes the distance 1500 miles.

## A TABLE

### SHEWING

The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

| Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. | Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. | Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 59 | 96 | 31 | 51 | 43 | 61 | 29 | 04 |
| 2 | 59 | 94 | 32 | 50 | 88 | 62 | 28 | 17 |
| 3 | 59 | 92 | 33 | 50 | 32 | 63 | 27 | 24 |
| 4 | 59 | 86 | 34 | 49 | 74 | 64 | 26 | 30 |
| 5 | 59 | 77 | 35 | 49 | 15 | 65 | 25 | 36 |
| 6 | 59 | 67 | 36 | 48 | 54 | 66 | 24 | 41 |
| 7 | 59 | 56 | 37 | 47 | 92 | 67 | 23 | 45 |
| 8 | 59 | 40 | 38 | 47 | 28 | 68 | 22 | 48 |
| 9 | 59 | 20 | 39 | 46 | 62 | 69 | 21 | 51 |
| 10 | 59 | 08 | 40 | 46 | 00 | 70 | 20 | 52 |
| 11 | 58 | 89 | 41 | 45 | 28 | 71 | 19 | 54 |
| 12 | 58 | 68 | 42 | 44 | 95 | 72 | 18 | 55 |
| 13 | 58 | 46 | 43 | 43 | 88 | 73 | 17 | 54 |
| 14 | 58 | 22 | 44 | 43 | 16 | 74 | 16 | 53 |
| 15 | 58 | 00 | 45 | 42 | 43 | 75 | 15 | 52 |
| 16 | 57 | 60 | 46 | 41 | 68 | 76 | 14 | 51 |
| 17 | 57 | 30 | 47 | 41 | 00 | 77 | 13 | 50 |
| 18 | 57 | 04 | 48 | 40 | 15 | 78 | 12 | 48 |
| 19 | 56 | 73 | 49 | 39 | 36 | 79 | 11 | 45 |
| 20 | 56 | 38 | 50 | 38 | 57 | 80 | 10 | 42 |
| 21 | 56 | 00 | 51 | 37 | 73 | 81 | 09 | 38 |
| 22 | 55 | 63 | 52 | 37 | 00 | 82 | 08 | 35 |
| 23 | 55 | 23 | 53 | 36 | 18 | 83 | 07 | 32 |
| 24 | 54 | 81 | 54 | 35 | 26 | 84 | 06 | 28 |
| 25 | 54 | 38 | 55 | 34 | 41 | 85 | 05 | 23 |
| 26 | 54 | 00 | 56 | 33 | 55 | 86 | 04 | 18 |
| 27 | 53 | 44 | 57 | 32 | 67 | 87 | 03 | 14 |
| 28 | 53 | 00 | 58 | 31 | 79 | 88 | 02 | 09 |
| 29 | 52 | 48 | 59 | 30 | 90 | 89 | 01 | 05 |
| 30 | 51 | 96 | 60 | 30 | 00 | 90 | 00 | 00 |

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to ſupply the place of the compaſſes in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of braſs, ſcrewed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the diſtances and bearings of places are meaſured without the trouble of firſt extending the compaſſes between them, and then applying the ſame to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

## PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. 1. *THE diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its ſurface in ſquare, and its ſolidity in cubic meaſure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where of the ſame height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof, by that common experiment of the aſcent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, then double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole as a new diameter by its proper circumference, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituated, as that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing their variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, ſee above.

PROB. 4. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all thoſe places that have the ſame latitude.*

The globe being rectified *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

*(a)* PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time, which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place or nearly at the time deſired.

PROP. 7. *The month and day being given, as alſo the particular time of that day, to find thoſe places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the given place, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe in that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place; find the Sun's place in the ecliptic *(b)* at that time, which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and whereſoever the index pointeth, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of 12, for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.

*(a)* PROB. 2.
*(b)* PROB. 6.

PROB. 9. *To know what o'clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the ſame time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed *(c)* according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time, Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place wherever it is.

*(c)* PROB. 3.

PROB. 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two days of the year in which the Sun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the Sun's annual motion) on what days he paſſed through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic, for thoſe are the days required in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The month and the day being given, to find by the globe thoſe places of the North Frigid Zone, where the ſun beginneth then to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

The day given (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and winter ſolſtice), find *(d)* the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the ſun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid chalk are thoſe in which the ſun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the

*(d)* PROB. 6.

the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north; then marking with chalk, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the ſun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine upon the ſaid place, and what days he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and obſerving its latitude (*a*) elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine above the horizon of the given place; and the oppoſite arch of the ſaid circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. And in the interval he will riſe and ſet. (*a*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given, to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the ſun, when on the meridian, ſhall be vertical on that day.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic being (*b*) found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, in which make a ſmall mark with chalk, exactly above the ſun's place. Which done, turn the globe and thoſe places which have the ſun vertical in the meridian, will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark. (*b*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compaſs the ſun then riſeth and ſetteth in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and, finding the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſeth. By turning the globe about till his place coincide with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon the ſaid circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the globe the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer if in the northern, or Capricorn if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the ſign of Cancer touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index, for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement whereof is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. As for the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night, they are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find thoſe places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the ſame time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what

places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe about till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and what places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the ſun is vertical at that very time.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic (*a*) being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame with chalk; then (*b*) find thoſe places of the earth in whoſe meridian the ſun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforeſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the ſun is vertical at that very time.

(*a*) PROB. 6.
(*b*) PROB. 16.

PROP. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all thoſe places where the ſun is then riſing, or ſetting, or on the meridian; conſequently, all thoſe places which are enlightened at that time, and thoſe which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be ſolved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the braſs meridian; unleſs the ſun be on or near ſome of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joſeph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the ſurface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year, according to his method; which is as follows.

Having found the place to which the ſun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the ſouthern hemiſphere, elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian. Then, all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, have the ſun riſing to them at that time; and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle have it ſetting; to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the braſs meridian, it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the ſun, and have the ſun juſt as many degrees above them, as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the ſun is vertical; and then laying it over any other place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be ſet to the upper XII. or noon, and then the globe be turned round eaſtward on its axis: when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-riſing

at

at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-ſet

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day: and to thoſe which do not come above it, the ſun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the moon in the zodiac and her true latitude, to find thereby the exact hour when ſhe ſhall riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanack; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For the ſolution of the problem (*a*), elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the ſun's place in the ecliptic at that time being (*b*) found and marked with chalk, as alſo the moon's place at the ſame, bring the ſun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, then turn the globe till the moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian, and the index will point at thoſe various times, the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing.

(*a*) PROB. 2.

(*b*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 20. *Two places being given on the globe, to find the true diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be 69½ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A place being given on the globe, and its true diſtance from a ſecond place, to find thereby all other places of the earth that are of the ſame diſtance from the given place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon the ſaid quadrant, the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees, otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the ſaid quadrant or ſemicircle quite round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark, are thoſe deſired.

## GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth do equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and

towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer that any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary. The circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heaven every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of theſe places, at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination), all theſe places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For, there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declinations from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the neareſt tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the fartheſt tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But, at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of theſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; and none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere the contrary.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting; and at the oppoſite time of the year without riſing: becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic

ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole, theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her take what time ſhe will to do it in, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day, they will gain a complete day of that ſort at their return; without gaining one moment of abſolute time more than is elapſed during their courſe, to the people at the port. If they ſail weſtward they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſaid port; becauſe, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above their horizon, as anſwers to that day's courſe; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

## OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the Earth are two, the *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſes, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (beſides the iſlands), viz. the *eaſtern* and *weſtern* continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the northweſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over), on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, 60 or 70 miles broad.

A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninſula* is a tract of land every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece: and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*: as the iſthmus of Suez which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the cape of Good Hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe), viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific*, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean, divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The *ocean* is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. The *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, reſtrained or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a *ſound*; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it is communicated with the ſea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean: if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biſcay: if it be very ſmall, a *creek*, *haven*, *ſtation*, or *road* for ſhips, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription: for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of land and water we have deſcribed, it may be proper to obſerve, that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them.

The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean; an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory, or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of ſea: and an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correſpond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial content of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

| | Square Miles. |
|---|---|
| The Globe | 199,512,595 |
| Seas and unknown Parts | 160,522,026 |
| The Habitable World * | 38,990,569 |
| Europe | 4,456,065 |
| Aſia | 10,768,823 |
| Africa | 9,654,807 |
| America | 14,110,874 |
| Perſian Empire under Darius | 1,650,000 |
| Rom. Emp. in its utmoſt height | 1,610,000 |
| Ruſſian | 4,161,685 |
| Chineſe | 1,749,000 |
| Great Mogul | 1,116,000 |
| Turkiſh | 950,057 |
| Preſent Perſian | 800,000 |

Iſlands.

| | Square Miles. |
|---|---|
| Borneo | 228,000 |
| Madagaſcar | 168,000 |
| Sumatra | 129,000 |
| Japan | 118,000 |
| Great Britain | 72,926 |
| Celebes | 68,400 |
| Manilla | 58,500 |
| Iceland | 46,000 |
| Terra del Fuego | 42,075 |
| Mindinao | 39,200 |
| Cuba | 38,400 |
| Java | 38,250 |

| Iſlands. | Square Miles. |
|---|---|
| Hiſpaniola | 36,000 |
| Newfoundland | 35,500 |
| Ceylon | 27,730 |
| Ireland | 27,457 |
| Formoſa | 17,000 |
| Anian | 11,900 |
| Gilolo | 10,400 |
| Sicily | 9400 |
| Timor | 7800 |
| Sardinia | 6600 |
| Cyprus | 6300 |
| Jamaica | 6000 |
| Flores | 6000 |
| Ceram | 5400 |
| Breton | 4000 |
| Socatra | 3600 |
| Candia | 3220 |
| Porto Rico | 3200 |
| Corſica | 2520 |
| Zealand | 1935 |
| Majorca | 1400 |
| St. Jago | 1400 |
| Negropont | 1300 |
| Teneriff | 1272 |
| Gothland | 1000 |
| Madeira | 950 |
| St. Michael | 920 |

| Iſlands. | Sq. Mi |
|---|---|
| Skye | 900 |
| Lewis | 880 |
| Funen | 768 |
| Yvica | 625 |
| Minorca | 220 |
| Rhodes | 480 |
| Cephalonia | 420 |
| Amboya | 400 |
| Orkney Pomona | 324 |
| Scio | 300 |
| Martinico | 260 |
| Lemnos | 225 |
| Corfu | 194 |
| Providence | 168 |
| Man | 160 |
| Bornholm | 160 |
| Wight | 150 |
| Malta | 150 |
| Barbadoes | 140 |
| Zant | 120 |
| Antigua | 100 |
| St. Chriſtopher's | 80 |
| St. Helena | 80 |
| Guernſey | 50 |
| Jerſey | 45 |
| Bermudas | 40 |
| Rhode | 36 |

To theſe iſlands may be added the following, which have lately been diſcovered, or more fully explored. The exact dimenſions of them are not aſcertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largeſt, which is ſuppoſed to be nearly equal in ſize to the whole continent of Europe:

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,
Otaheite, or King George's Iſland,
Friendly Iſlands,
Marqueſas.
Eaſter, or Davis's Iſland.

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finiſh the doctrine of the earth, without conſidering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its ſurface principally ariſe.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where ſurrounded by a fine inviſible fluid, which extends to ſeveral miles above its ſurface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiment, that a ſmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace, or to be compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs than it occupied before. The general cauſe of the expanſion of air is heat, the general cauſe of its compreſſion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmoſphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreſſed. But when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general; and a breeze, gale, or ſtorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are con-

* The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world at a medium, taken from the beſt calculations, are about 953 millions.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Europe contains | — | 153 Millions. |
| Aſia | — | 500 |
| Africa | — | 150 |
| America | — | 150 |
| Total | | 953 |

monly

monly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which, in moving from eaſt to weſt, heats, and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream, or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from ſome particular point of the compaſs without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The *General Trade Winds* which extend to near thirty degrees of latitude on each ſide of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific ſeas. 2. The *Monſoons*, or ſhifting trade winds, which blow ſix months in one direction, and the other ſix months in the oppoſite directions. Theſe are moſtly in the Indian, or Eaſtern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinox, and it is accompanied with terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea* and *Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from mid-night to mid-day, and from the ſea from about noon, till midnight: theſe, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the weſt, ſouth weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the winds blow conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degree of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

It may be alſo uſeful to ſtudents in navigation and geography to obſerve farther, that the courſe or latitude our ſhips generally keep in their paſſage from England to America and the Weſt Indies, is

To Boſton in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.

To New York by the Azores or Weſtern Iſlands, 39 degrees.

To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper courſe, 32 degrees: but the uſual courſe, to take advantage of the trade winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees; and in this courſe they frequently touch at Antigua: it is this courſe our Weſt India ſhips ſail in.

The Spaniſh galleons and the flota from Spain keep from 15 to 18 degrees; and in their return to Spain about 37 degrees.

TIDES.] By the *tides* are meant that regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the Tides remained in obſcurity till the immortal Sir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the

ſolar

ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw, or attract one another, in proportion to their diſtance; it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are immediately below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it, and conſequently wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former: for in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's centre, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring Tides:* for at theſe times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line, and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap Tides:* for in the quarters the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them: ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands, and continents, which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects, which have a ſhare in producing them.

There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the Ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from north to ſouth. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the Sound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little; but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

MAPS.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth, but a

map

map no more than a plane ſurface can repreſent one that is ſpherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of ſeveral of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe itſelf.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand, oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude*. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude, or longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places, may be found as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhews that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head of the ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcibed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this ſort of meaſure: not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile, and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries compared with the Engliſh by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Ruſſian verſt is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile is nearly 1 Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common league is near 3 Engliſh, and
The Engliſh marine league is 3 Engliſh miles.

# PART II.

## OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of theſe countries, carried our reſearches beyond modern times; it was thought neceſſary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates, which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant; but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſably requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed according to the beſt chronologers in the year before Chriſt 4004; and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which hath been adopted by ſome chronologers and hiſtorians, but is of little real ſervice. The ſacred records have fully determined the queſtion, that the world was not eternal, and alſo aſcertained the time of its creation with great preciſion *.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters in Geneſis, that the world before the flood, was extremely populous, that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious both in their ſentiments and manners. Their wickedneſs gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were ſwept from off the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very conſiderable change on the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, and gave them a form leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which hath ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; Before Chriſt, 2348.

* The Samaritan copy of the Bible makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 ſhort of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy ſtretches it to 2262 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of ſuperior authority.

and

and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity univerſally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebis, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the deluge, whatever ſurpriſe it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not in the ſmalleſt degree excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſeen, from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how ſpeedily mankind increaſe when the generative faculty lies under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during this early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to have exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. From this period the hiſtory of ancient nations begins a little to expand itſelf; and we learn ſeveral particulars of very conſiderable importance.

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Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they ſet themſelves to oppreſs and deſtroy one another. Chaderlaomer king of the Elamites, or Perſians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, muſt not have been very conſiderable, ſince, in one of theſe expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſhold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every ſtroke diſcovers the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He is ſurrounded with a crowd of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſſions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the firſt principles of civil order and regular government ſeem to have been tolerably

* According to Dr. Playfair's chronological tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Chriſt 2060, and his being called out of Urr at 1986.

underſtood

underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; granaries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians, that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the preſent inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries: but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, unleſs it be Ninus, the ſucceſſor of Aſſur, who, fired by the ſpirit of conqueſt, extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominions, and lays the foundation of that monarchy, aſſiſted by his enterpriſing ſucceſſor Semiramis, which, under the name of the Aſſyrian empire, kept Aſia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grand-ſon of Noah, is the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands in the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 2090. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceed a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Chriſtian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans ſoon fell aſunder; and the ancient Greeks, who ſeem at this time to be as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manner of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges 1850.
or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful.

But the hiſtory of God's choſen people, the Iſraelites, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events, which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion, 1794 1689.
years before Chriſt, but according to the Hebrew Chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the World 2315. This is a remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly diſfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of antiquity as being on the ſame footing with regard to thoſe matters. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude, that all were in that ſituation. They diſcover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in points of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians in America, or the Negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world: theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations therefore who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made conſiderable improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is hardly to be ſuppoſed, that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity, could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations who live by hunting or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals come to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of an ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs: and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave ſilver, the metal is weighed in preſence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice was laid aſide, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abraham. The *reſitah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears, from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and alſo a contemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect, that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than

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the conveniences of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude, that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and refinement: for people do not think of luxuries, until the uſeful arts have made high advancement among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea: which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable that they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity, who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce: they were diſtinguiſhed by a word, which, in the Hebrew tongue, ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they ſet themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object: and, with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they paſs for the inventors of whatever is ſubſervient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children; and, if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of ſuch remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, ſuppoſe the knowledge of ſeveral others; aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and ſo of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, ſeveral nations were ſo well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to meaſure by them the duration of their year. It had been an univerſal cuſtom among all the nations of antiquity as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or ſeven days: this undoubtedly aroſe from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks: hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people again who lived by agriculture, and who had gotten among them the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons: hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, muſt have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the diſcovery of the *ſolar year*, which at that time would be thought an immenſe improvement in aſtronomy. But with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a frightful ſpectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and every elegant art, were deſcended from a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to one another?

This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. The deſcendants of Noah, who removed at a great diſtance from the plains of Shinar, loſt all connection with the civiliſed part of mankind. Their poſterity became ſtill more ignorant; and the human mind was at length ſunk into an abyſs of miſery and wretchedneſs.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would emerge from their obſcurity. This, however, is far from being the caſe: we only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninius, who ſucceeded Se-
1965. miramis and Ninus in the Aſſyrian throne, we find an aſtoniſhing blank in the hiſtory of this empire, for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of ancient hiſtory on this ſubject, is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wiſe princes paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was ſwallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Chriſt 1492; by his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very conſiderable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris, and his immediate ſucceſſors, was in all probability the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the beſt calculation, is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But ancient hiſtory often excites, without gratifying our curioſity: for, from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learn-
1556. ing and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpire after wiſdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civiliſe the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what ſituations they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and with little knowledge of thoſe to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the kingdom of At-
1506. tica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civiliſing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume
1496. ſome appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphictyon, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of poſterity, to think of ſome expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politics the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions, which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflections he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the differ-

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ent territories; and by his eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy was diſcuſſed, and finally determined. Amphictyon likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire. Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Chriſt 1322, the Iſthmian games were inſtituted at Corinth; and 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops.

The Greek ſtates, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the community. The firſt of theſe was the obſcure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine ſea, and to 1263. eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that ſeveral ſail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about on different coaſts. The rocks, at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea, occaſioned great labour: they ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not leſs conſiderable than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern diſcoverers. From this expedition, to that againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by 1184. Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made a wonderful progreſs in power and opulence: no leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. Theſe veſſels, however, were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, a modern muſt form but a mean notion of the ſtrength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government,

arts, and manners, which compoſe ſo great a part of our preſent work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable reſemblance between the political ſituation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who preſided in the adminiſtration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being abſolute. In each ſociety there were a number of other leaders, whoſe influence over their particular clans, or tribes, was not leſs conſiderable than that of the king over his immediate followers. Theſe captains were often at war with one another, and ſometimes with their ſovereign. Such a ſituation was, in all reſpects, extremely unfavourable: each particular ſtate was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to ſhade the oppoſite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The hiſtory of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which theſe ſtates, that, for want of union, were weak and inſignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theſeus king of Attica, about the year before Chriſt 1234, had acquired a great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He ſaw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve diſtricts, was expoſed; and he conceived, that by means of the influence which his perſonal character, united to the royal authority with which he was inveſted, had univerſally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpoſe he endeavoured to maintain, and even to increaſe, his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans: he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters, by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed this city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendor of Athens and of Theſeus now totally eclipſed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, by being diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes; the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of perſons. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the

year

year B. C. 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it happened ſoon after that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like unto other nations. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days however of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of ſeven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our principal attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not entirely ſubvert the regal authority: they eſtabliſhed a perpetual magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with 1070.
almoſt the ſame rights which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became ſenſible, that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued therefore three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out 684.
for a freſh reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was hardly poſſible that the ancient cuſtoms of the realm, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuary ſpirits of the Athenians, in the firſt flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiſer part of the ſtate, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to their preſent anarchy and confuſion, to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were

found to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again returned into confuſion and diſorder, and remained ſo till the time of Solon, who died in the year before Chriſt 539. The gentle manners, diſintereſted virtue, and wiſdom more than human, by which this ſage was diſtinguiſhed, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the moſt important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was aſſigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he ſhould undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all conſiderations of private eaſe, ſafety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thouſand dangers. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, excepting thoſe relative to murder. The puniſhment of this crime could not be too great; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new model the political law; and his eſtabliſhments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He ſeems to have ſet out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen ſhould have an equal political importance, was a ſyſtem of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed, and the pooreſt claſs he rendered altogether incapable of any public office.

They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould, in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſt of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendancy in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen, but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny, and the moſt ſerious deliberation.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other ancient republics were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great lines of it at leaſt ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this ſort. Sparta, like the other ſtates of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to be the firſt king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length,

1102. the two brothers Euriſthenes and Procles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Chriſtian æra. The Spartan government, however, did not take

884. that ſingular form which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus, agreed with that already deſcribed in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and in general in all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence.

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It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution arose from this, that in all laws, Lycurgus had at least as much respect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in short, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbidden the use of money, they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks, capable to bear arms, were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation rather than a hardship, and they behaved in it with a spirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect under one point of view the history of the different quarters of the globe, we must now cast our eyes on Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires, of which we have so long lost sight. We have already mentioned in what obscurity the history of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period, to the dissolution 781. of their government by Cambyses of Persia, in the year B. C. 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wisdom of their laws, and political institutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom, and were admirably calculated for preserving order and good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell asunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus, the last emperor of Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces governor of Media, and Belesis governor of Babylon, conspire against their sovereign, set fire to his capital, in which Sardanapalus perished, B. C. 820, and divide between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway of Asia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Assyria anno B. C. 777, and Shalmanezer, one of his successors, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the ten Tribes captive into Assyria and Media, B. C. 721. Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon also, in the year B. C. 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and mastered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Per- 538. sian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary, however, that we should enter on the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, sufficient examples of monarchical governments: but how few are our republics? But the æra of Cyrus is in one respect extremely

tremely remarkable; beſide delivering the Jews from their captivity, becauſe, with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences; and if poſſible, diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements, which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety.

The taſte for the great and magnificent, ſeems to have been the prevailing character of theſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and two thouſand ſix hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. The apex is 13 feet ſquare. The ſecond ſtands on as much ground as the firſt, but is 40 feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among this people, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body ſuch vegetables as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtructing of vaults. The arts, in which theſe nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phenomena of the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that, according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them, during the lateſt period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the neceſſaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civilized and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, and of conſequence brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art: when ſtrength and courage were the only circumſtances which gave the advantage to one nation over another; when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been diſcovered to be ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy; and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues, which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, when the luſt of univerſal empire, which ſeldom fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led 504.
Darius (at the inſtigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians burning the city of Sardis), to ſend forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers, who, under Cyrus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whoſe minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hun- 490.
dred thouſand foot, and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen, Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in ancient writers.

Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an immenſe army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two 480.
millions and one hundred thouſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered, by ſome ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be aſcertained: but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice of the eaſtern nations, of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks, and ſo well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting liberty, "even virtue mourns, and looks around for happineſs in vain." But though the Perſian war concluded glorioufly for the Greeks, it is, in a great meaſure, to this war, that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired an immenſity of Perſian gold; it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connexion with the Perſians, after the concluſion of it, which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another: their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and 431.
drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful), rendered himſelf

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the abſolute maſter of Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But
338. this conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſchemes ſo deeply, and by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gained over ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſeveral ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue, which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators, in moſt of their ſtates, were bribed into the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of winning their affections.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long ſurvive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty. But they
334. were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in over-running and ſubduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been deſcribed by many authors both ancient and modern, and conſtitutes a ſingular part of the hiſtory of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and ſucceſs, Alex-
323. ander died at Babylon. His captains, after ſacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives riſe to a number of æras and events too complicated for our preſent purpoſe, and even too unintereſting. After conſidering therefore the ſtate of arts and ſciences in Greece, we ſhall paſs over to the Roman affairs, where the hiſtorical deduction is more ſimple, and alſo more important.

The bare names of illuſtrious men, who flouriſhed in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Epheſian Diana, are the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who ſettled in Aſia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the firſt ſculptor whoſe works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhaſius, and Timantheus, during the ſame age, firſt diſcovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Heſiod and Homer, who flouriſhed 1000 years before the Chriſtian æra, the tragic poets Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt conſiderable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writing. Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demoſthenes, to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not

however in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with the utmoſt ſucceſs. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtue of whoſe life, and the excellence of whoſe philoſophy, juſtly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration; his three diſciples, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, may, for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which theſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could divine. But whatever ſome vain empirics in learning may pretend, the moſt learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the ſuperiority of the Greek philoſophers; and have reckoned themſelves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expreſſion. But the Greeks were not leſs diſtinguiſhed for their active than for their ſpeculative talents. It would be endleſs to recount the names of their famous ſtateſmen and warriors, and it is impoſſible to mention a few without doing injuſtice to a greater number. War was firſt reduced into a ſcience by the Greeks. Their ſoldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a dread of their ſuperiors. We have ſeen the effect of this military virtue in their wars againſt the Perſians: the cauſe of it was the wiſe laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus had eſtabliſhed in Greece. But we muſt now leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as 753. the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both theſe maxims, by means of which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus,

mulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons, diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers: and after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil or military intereſts of his country, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, pri-
717. vately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that ſenate, which he himſelf had inſtituted.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next to him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin
509. family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans, however, were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterpriſes. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates called conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the powers of their ſovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignalizing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſideration which could excite them: that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be ſurpriſed, that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power all over Italy.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded or enlarged on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, anno B. C. 869, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide, through the Straits. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea, and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the Iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans were two nearly threatened not to take
264. up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates, known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was an inconſiderable ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed

ployed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage laſted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted. A Carthaginian veſſel was wrecked on their coaſt; they uſed it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the conſul Duilius, who fought their 260.
firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he is ſent back on his parole to negociate a change of priſoners. He maintains in the ſenate, the 256.
propriety of that law, which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſeves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returns to a certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Carthaginian was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans, and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his ſon to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans; the courageous boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threat- 218.
ens the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus king of Syracuſe declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preſervation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, deſpiſing popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The ſtrength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raiſes the ſiege of Nola, takes Syracuſe, and revives the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of theſe great men, but ſaw ſomething more divine in the young Scipio. The ſucceſs of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the gods. At the age of four-and-twenty, he flies 210.
into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings ſubmit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and ſees her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives 201.
hoſtages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people.

After the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had inconſiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconſiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts: in the one fought the Romans and Carthiginians; the other was agitated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander the Great.

Great. Their ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Beotian; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. The Etolians were the moſt conſiderable of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiority, which in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his leſs powerful neighbours. Philip the preſent monarch, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical ſteps; the Etolians were moſt irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependents. The Etolians diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourſe to the ſame prince, who was at this time the moſt powerful monarch in the Eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice ſo much as that of the Etolians; for, inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be moſt vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering
190. Philip. They now purſue Antiochus, the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compel him to ſubmit to an infamous treaty.

In theſe conqueſts the Romans ſtill allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which denomination however, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition very ſervile, and inferred, that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on theſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithridates king of Pontus, for the ſpace of 26 years. But this monarch had great reſources. His kingdom bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men, whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous, and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hanibal.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not a ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince, who dared to ſhew himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, at laſt was compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and of his life, in the year B. C. 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius, in
106. conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps, began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a pro-

vince.

vince. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, then made the North of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deſarts, leſs formidable 102. than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an internal war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt periods of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes on this ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

Theſe diſputes, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable, in order to obtain them, the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either ſide to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an extinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name; the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline, and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his own rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar ap- 48. pears victorious almoſt at the ſame time all over the world: in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius think to give Rome her liberty, by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. 44. It falls into the hands of Mark Anthony; young Cæſar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus or Caſſius to put an end to his life. Thoſe friends of liberty had killed themſelves in deſpair; and Octavius, 31.

under

under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remained the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms among diſtant nations; and, while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter at Rome, the Romans were without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthagian, the Perſian, the Greek, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne, than ambaſſadors from all quarters of the known world, crowd to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a moſt formidable enemy, court his friendſhip; India ſeeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weſer re-
7. ceives his laws. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jeſus Chriſt comes into the world, four years before the common æra.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners of that people. During the firſt ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt, of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they ſtudied, becauſe they were the only arts they eſteemed. But upon the downfal of Carthage, the Romans having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate the arts. Their progreſs, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have deſcribed. The conqueſt of Greece at once put them in poſſeſſion of every thing moſt rare, curious, or elegant. Aſia, which was the next victim, offered all its ſtores; and the Romans, from the moſt ſimple people, ſpeedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. In poetry Virgil yields only to Homer, whoſe verſe, like the proſe of Demoſthenes, may be conſidered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his ſatires and epiſtles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unrivalled in that ſpecies of writing. In hiſtory, the Romans can boaſt of Livy, who poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent, and ſentimental. Tacitus indeed did not flouriſh in the Auguſtan age, but his works do himſelf the greateſt honour, while they diſgrace his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vices he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. In philoſophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the ſyſtem of the Greek philoſopher Epicurus, deſcribed in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the leaſt attempt. In tragedy, they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of ſtyle, wants that *comica vis*, or lively vein of humour, that diſtinguiſhes the Greek comedians, and which diſtinguiſhes our Shakſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra, which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not indeed aboliſh the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liberties; and, while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army

army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recall to our mind the ſituation of Turkey at preſent. It is of no importance therefore to conſider the character of the emperors, ſince they had no power but what aroſe from a mercenary ſtanding army; nor to enter into a detail with regard to the tranſactions of the court, which were directed with that caprice, and cruelty, and corruption, which univerſally prevailed under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations though rude and ignorant were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline, than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were on both ſides bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte, the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe however were but miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of their arms, for being over-awed by mercenary ſoldiers kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumſtance which could ſupport them under theſe complicated calamities, was the hope of ſeeing better days.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany, which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe, and north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſſneſs which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder, or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only roufed them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, of the friends they had loſt, and warm them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (ſays an

elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation) with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. Theſe, in their turn, puſhed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred, and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horror of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Chriſtianity, changed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. This occaſioned a prodigious alteration. 328. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the Eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*), weakened by this diviſion, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftan, is ſeated on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were gradual and ſucceſſive. The im- 476. menſe fabric of the Roman Empire was the work of many ages, and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The ancient diſcipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it deſcended to their ſucceſſors, and muſt have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite diſh. The tyranny, and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæſars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations who overcame them.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period, till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words

ſcarcely

ſcarce in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite: ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the 9th century, governed France and Germany with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century, endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and give their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king or general, who led the barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependants, annexed the ſame condition to the grant. But though this ſyſtem ſeemed to be admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude. They were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and ſought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty made ſuch a happy change in the condition of mankind, as rouſed them from that ſtupidity and inaction into which they had been ſunk by the wretchedneſs of their former ſtate. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the Eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relicks of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

Vandals, who overthrew that of the Weſt. In this city, ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where ſome reliſh for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated ſome knowledge of theſe to their neighbours in Italy; and the cruſades
1096. which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt, and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariners compaſs was invented,
1302. which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almoſt entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies, or ſocieties of Lombard merchants, ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of theſe companies ſettled in London, and from hence the name of Lombard Street was derived.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awakened in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, ſoon after they had begun to open ſome trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered through thoſe large countries of Germany and Flanders, which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanſeatic League*; which became ſo formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores; and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not leſs uſeful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent, as well as advantage, as diffuſed among them a general habit of induſtry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the

moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England, endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt thoſe manufactures, the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and firſt turned the active and enterpriſing genius of his people towards thoſe arts which have raiſed the Engliſh to the firſt rank among commercial nations. 1330.

The Chriſtian princes, after their great loſſes in the cruſades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendſhip of the great khans of Tartary, whoſe fame in arms had reached the moſt remote corners of Europe and Aſia, that they might be ſome check upon the Turks, who had been ſuch enemies to the Chriſtian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, ſerving occaſionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the fineſt countries of Aſia.

The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profeſſion of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of theſe infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the moſt remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered a paſſage thither by ſea probable and practicable. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce. 1405.

At firſt they contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, were ſo fortunate as to ſail beyond the cape, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt,

Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſchemes ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource; and there, after eight years attendance, he at length ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. This princeſs was prevailed upon to patronize him, by the repreſentations of Juan Perez, guardian of the monaſtery of Rabida. He was a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his perſonal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a phyſician ſettled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his ſkill in mathematical knowledge. This inveſtigation completely ſatisfied them of the ſolidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of ſucceſs in executing the plan which he propoſed. Perez therefore ſo ſtrongly recommended it to queen Iſabella, that ſhe entirely entered into the ſcheme, and even generouſly offered, to the honour of her ſex, to pledge her own jewels in order to raiſe as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santagel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the ſum that was requiſite, that the queen might not be reduced to the neceſſity of having recourſe to that expedient.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon one of the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; and his ſailors, who were often diſcontented, at length began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land, after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his ſurprize that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and which he ſoon diſcovered to be a new world: of which the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind.

1440. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences; and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. "It was in theſe ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we have given ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate in the following work. The great events which happened then have not hitherto ſpent their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance

of

of power then introduced, or rendered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of European nations."

From all which it ſeems extremely certain, that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no leſs certain, that, in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves incapable of defending even their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they may make are extremely illuſive; inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns; the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects; he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it, and if he die before it is completed, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him. But external conqueſts cannot be concealed; they generally occaſion more fear than hurt, and are almoſt always leſs ſolid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occaſion to, by which the prince who, by misfortune, has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the laſt extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The ſtates of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Perſian invaſions, exhibit the ſame truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the moſt inconſiderable of theſe little ſocieties, but in its turn imbibed the frenzy of conqueſt, and in its turn too was reduced by this frenzy to the utmoſt miſery and diſtreſs *. The modern examples are ſo well known, that it is almoſt unneceſſary to mention them. Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria † excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of fear, the empreſs queen would never have become the object of compaſſion. France affords an example not leſs ſtriking. The nerves of that kingdom were ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an ambitious monarch, that it ſeemed hardly poſſible they ſhould acquire their natural tone in the courſe of this century. The debility of their efforts in the war of 1756 proved the greatneſs of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not ſlow and gradual: but the Britiſh cabinet, in agitating a civil war with the North Americans, hath greatly contributed to reſtore and augment their naval power.

* The reader who would ſee this ſubject fully illuſtrated, may look at Iſocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the moſt finiſhed models of ancient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, ſeveral ſtates in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, with the vaſt empires of Mexico and Peru in South America, were, at the time of the Reformation, governed by Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria: territories which, though exceeding in riches and extent the moſt powerful empires of antiquity, did not gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign was a ſcene of hoſtility againſt his neighbours. One of his ſucceſſors, the late empreſs queen, and the repreſentative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only ſtripped of her dominions, but reduced ſo low as to be in the want of neceſſaries; and contributions were actually raiſed for her in Great Britain, whoſe king, George II. engaged in her cauſe, and at the expence of this nation reinſtated her upon the Imperial throne.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain, for a long time, enjoyed the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to have been the more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant an exiſtence. A great empire cannot be continued in a happy ſituation, but by wiſdom and moderation. The unhappy conteſt of Great Britain with the American colonies, through the folly, arrogance, or arbitrary deſigns of her then miniſters of ſtate, has plunged her into the greateſt difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to a prodigious height; her taxes greatly increaſed, and her trade diminiſhed. Happy will it be, if the preſent peace with America, and with the European powers with whom ſhe has been involved in war, in conſequence of her ever to be lamented conteſt with the colonies, ſhould again reſtore her to her former proſperity and tranquillity.

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# PART III.

## OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever rouſed the attention of mankind: but they being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular paſſions, of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame diſtinction, which we have hitherto obſerved, in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and of civilization among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine, what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction, we find, that in the firſt ages of the world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It aroſe from a divine ſource, and was not then diſfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured, and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf, to be the depoſitories of his law and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs perfect according to an infinity of circumſtances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity, that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt, was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phenomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject; and what is ſaid upon it in general, muſt always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the ancients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor

nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built therefore solely upon sentiment; as each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to the combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraved on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive: but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the image of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learned to fear anything but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflection, however, would be sufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes existed after death, it might likewise be the case of those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established, the propitious and the hostile; the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impressions of tradition, the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated or transplanted, made them lose the names, and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. For in general the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same substances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks, entertained nearly the same notions of gods and religion, with those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished B. C. 430 years, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the universe.

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical societies, whose principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, also had theirs; and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in good fellowship, without interfering or jostling with one another.

The

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the ſervice he required of men, produced a total alteration in their religious ſentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject. It is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion, which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be altogether deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrines and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, or maxims very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy; which at length occaſioned the elevation, and exorbitant claims of the biſhop of Rome.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and afterwards of the biſhop of Rome, over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of barbarians, by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of their antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious was the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made its way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the "*miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt*," their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects, the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the reformation. The unreaſonableneſs of the claims of the church of Rome was demonſtrated; many of their doctrines were proved to be equally unſcriptural and irrational; and ſome of their abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were expoſed both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect give them a juſt claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themſelves been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected that they ſhould be able wholly to free themſelves from errors; they ſtill retained an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and preſerved too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the church from which they had ſeparated themſelves. With all their defects, they are entitled to our admiration and eſteem; and the reformation began by Luther in Germany in the year 1517, and which took place in England A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil, as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with

EUROPE.


ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BRITISH OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN
ICELAND
Faro Is
Sheiland Is
Orkney Is
Western Is
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
BRITISH
DENMARK
GERMANY
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
AFRICA
BAY OF BISCAY
English Chan.
St. of Gibraltar
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Minorca
Majorca
Ivica
Arctick Circle
Mahlstrom
North Cape
Drafsordur
Reykahordur
Laanganes
Holum
Skalholt
Reykanes
Reydarfiordur
Wifshanna
Cape Stalt
Romsdal
Opdal
Bergen
Christiansand
Lindenas
Cape Skagen
Aberdeen
Bamff
St Andrews
Edinburgh
The Mullet
Derry
Irish Sea
Dublin
Shannon
Cork
C. Clear
Scilly Is
St George's Chan.
Bristol
Chester
York
Norwich
London
Amsterdam
Hamburg
Hanover
Cologne
Frankfort
Liege
Dover
Calais
Brest
Rouen
Rheims
St Malo
Paris
Verdun
Nancy
Strasbourg
Munich
Rennes
Nantes
Orleans
Tours
le Mans
Besancon
Dijon
Rochelle
Switz-erland
Bern
Geneva
Alps Mts
Turin
Venice
Genoa
Limoges
Bourdeaux
Cape Breton
Vienne
Toulouse
Narbonne
Gulf Lyon
Marseilles
Nice
Bastia
C. Ortegal
C. Finisterre
Ferrol
Coruna
Oviedo
Bilboa
Bayonne
Pyrenees Mts
Zamora
Astorga
Valladolid
Salamanca
Madrid
Talaherra
Tortosa
Lisbon
Leiria
Lameg
O Porto
Guarda
Toledo
Cuenca
Valencia
Cordova
Murcia
Alicant
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Cartagena
Almeria
Granada
Tangier
Ceuta
Fez
Salle
Algiers
Tunis
Majorca
Cagliari
Palermo
Syracuse
Malta
Mahon
Ivica
Tarifa
C. St Vincent
Lagos
60
55
50
45
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30
25
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15
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ICY SEA
North Cape
FROZEN OCEAN
Wardhus
Kolgoy
Waygats Str.
SAMOIEDA
Pustozerskoi
Osterog
Candinos
Kola
Petshora R.
SIBERIA
Polina
Ulema
Tornea
Mezen
Kenrol
Werchilskoy
WHITE SEA
Archangel
Schenkerskoy
Gr. Permia
Lulea
Soma
Weliki
Vma
Lakteo
Povenza
Kargapol
Ustiug
Totma
Wasa
Polega
Belosero
Klinou
Croneburg
Ladoga
Wologda
Petronskie
St. Petersburg
Orlou
Novogrod Welicki
Marva
Reval
Moscow
Nishney Novegrod
Ilmen L.
Pernau
Riga
Welikie Luki
Pereslau
Mittau
Smolensko
Woronesh
Volga R.
Polock
Konigsberg
Suze
Wilna
Mohilou
Czecersk
Kyrsk
Pawlowsk
Grodno
Ostrou
Mielnik
Thorn
Sumyn
Salion
Don R.
Warlaw
Kiou
Lampol
Miropel
Cracow
Belz
Lucko
Rudiak
Bakmut
Lemburg
Chotzin
Asoph
Presburg
Munkatz
Bender
Circassia
Tokay
Bistritz
Buda
Jassi
Precop
Crim Tartar
Georgia
Sip
Belgrade
Nicopoli
Philippopoli
Uscup
Constantinople
Salonichi
Sea of Marmora
Dardanelles
Smyrna
Squilace
Zante
Cephalonia
Patras
Morea
Candia
EUROPE
from the best
AUTHORITIES
Longit. E from London

# EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe, containing only about 4,456,065 ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles, is in many reſpects that which moſt deſerves our attention. There the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards its improvement; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners, and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world. Firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece: and we have ſeen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is worth while to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the domination of Turks and unnatural tyranny of Barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution; ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt, from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force, and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe, *ariſtocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and ſome ſtates of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are, likewiſe, mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments of Europe are compoſed only of two of the ſimple forms,

ſuch

ſuch as Poland, ſeveral ſtates of Italy, &c. all which ſhall be explained at length in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, Popery: and 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two diſtinguiſhed reformers of the 16th century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

## GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America: being 3000 miles long from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-eaſt; and 2500 broad from north to ſouth, from the north Cape in Norway to Cape Cayha or Metapar in the Morea, the moſt ſouthern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates.

| | Kingdoms. | Len. | Bth. | Chief City | Diſt. & Bearing from London. | Diff. of Time from London. | Religion |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Miles. | H. M. | |
| British Empire | England | 380 | 300 | London | * * * | * * * | Calviniſts, Lu |
| | Scotland | 300 | 150 | Edinburgh | 400 N. | 0 12 aft. | Calviniſts, &c. |
| | Ireland | 285 | 160 | Dublin | 270 N. W. | 0 26 aft. | Calviniſts & P |
| | Norway | 1000 | 300 | Bergen | 540 N. | 0 24 bef. | Lutherans |
| | Denmark | 240 | 180 | Copenhagen | 500 N. E. | 0 50 bef. | Lutherans |
| | Sweden | 800 | 500 | Stockholm | 750 N. E. | 1 10 bef. | Lutherans |
| | Ruſſia | 1500 | 1100 | Peterſburgh | 1140 N. E. | 2 4 bef. | Greek church |
| | Poland | 700 | 680 | Warſaw | 760 E. | 1 24 bef. | Pap. Luth. an |
| | K. of Pr. Dom. | 600 | 350 | Berlin | 540 E. | 0 59 bef. | Luth. and Ca |
| | Germany | 600 | 500 | Vienna | 620 E. | 1 5 bef. | Pap. Luth. an |
| | Bohemia | 300 | 250 | Prague | 600 E. | 1 4 bef. | Papiſts |
| Netherlands. | Holland | 150 | 100 | Amſterdam | 180 E. | 0 18 bef. | Calviniſts |
| | Flanders | 200 | 200 | Bruſſels | 180 S. E. | 0 16 bef. | Papiſts |
| | France | 600 | 500 | Paris | 200 S. E. | 0 9 bef. | Papiſts |
| | Spain | 700 | 500 | Madrid | 800 S. | 0 17 aft. | Papiſts |
| | Portugal | 300 | 100 | Liſbon | 850 S. W. | 0 38 aft. | Papiſts |
| | Switzerland | 260 | 100 | Bern, Coire, &c. | 420 S. E. | 0 28 bef. | Calvin. and P |
| Italy. | Several ſmall ſtates | Piedm. Montſerat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, P | | | | | |
| | Popedom | 240 | 120 | Rome | 820 S. E. | 0 52 bef. | Papiſts |
| | Naples | 280 | 120 | Naples | 870 S. E. | 1 0 bef. | Papiſts |
| | Hungary | 300 | 200 | Buda | 780 S. E. | 1 17 bef. | Pap. and Prot |
| Turkey in Europe. | Danubian Provinces | 600 | 420 | Conſtantinople | 1320 S. E. | 1 58 bef. | Mahometans, Greek Ch |
| | Lit. Tartary* | 380 | 240 | Precop | 1500 E. | 2 24 bef. | |
| | Greece | 400 | 240 | Athens | 1260 S. E. | 1 27 bef. | |

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Ruſſia, for the particulars of which, &c.

Exclusive of the British isles, before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal Islands:

| Islands. | | Chief Towns | Subject to |
|---|---|---|---|
| In the Northern Ocean. | Iceland | Skalholt | Denmark |
| | Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm, | — | Denmark |
| Baltic Sea. | Gothland, Aland, Rugen, | — | Sweden |
| | Osel, Dagho, | — | Russia |
| | Usedom, Wollin, | — | Prussia |
| Mediterranean Sea. | Ivica, | Ivica | Spain |
| | Majorca, | Majorca | Ditto |
| | Minorca, | Port Mahon | Ditto* |
| | Corsica, | Bastia | France |
| | Sardinia, | Cagliari | K. of Sard. |
| | Sicily, | Palermo | K. of 2 Sic. |
| Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice. | Lusieri, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia, | — | Venice |
| Archipelago, and Levant Seas. | Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece. | — | Turkey |

## DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish Majesty's dominions with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and 4th, his German territories.

The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

| Denmark. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Denmark Proper. | North Jutland, | 9,600 | 155 | 98 | Wyburg. |
| | South Jutland, or Sleswick, | 2,115 | 70 | 63 | Slesvick. |
| Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea. | Zealand, | 1,935 | 60 | 60 | Copenhagen, N. Lat. 55—41 E. Lon. 12—50 |
| | Funen, | 768 | 38 | 32 | Odensee. |
| | Falster and Langland, | 220 | 27 | 12 | Nikoping. Naxkaw. |
| | Femeren, | 50 | 13 | 8 | Borge. |
| | Alsen, | 54 | 15 | 6 | Sonderborge. |
| | Mona, | 39 | 14 | 5 | Stege. |
| | Bornholm, | 160 | 20 | 12 | Rostcomby. |
| In the North Seas, | Iceland Island, | 46,000 | 435 | 185 | Skalholt. |
| | Norway, | 71,400 | 750 | 170 | Bergen. |
| | Danish Lapland, | 28,400 | 285 | 172 | Wardhuys. |
| Westphalia, | Oldenburg, | 1260 | 62 | 32 | Oldenburg. |
| Lower Saxony, | Stormar, | 1000 | 52 | 32 | Glückstadt. |
| | Danish Holstein | | | | |
| | Total | 163,041 | | | |

* Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht 1713, but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards, February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive Treaty of Peace, signed at Paris, Sept. 3, 1783.

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

## EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

### EAST GREENLAND.

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions; or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 9 and 20 deg. E. long. and 76 and 81 deg. N. lat. according to Captain Phipps's obſervations in his Voyage 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fiſh and fowl are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have formed within the laſt 30 years, ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis and the northern lights reflected from the ſnow, enable them to purſue the chace during the long winter's night that reigns in thoſe gloomy regions, and they take a great number of ſea-lions, which ſerve them for food. There is a whale-fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and ſome Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſt. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

### WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance between the aſpect, manners, and dreſs of thoſe natives, and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low of ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtraight, and of a black colour; but they have ſeldom any beards, becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can alſo uſe their hands with much ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but they are good humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of rein-deer; but that is now ſcarce among them, and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a great copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh-bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh.

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The men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with ſkins. The men hunt and fiſh, but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themſelves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity only to draw the ſeal up upon the ſhore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and make cloaths, ſhoes, and boots, out of them; ſo that they are likewiſe both ſhoemakers and taylors. The women alſo build and repair the houſes and tents, ſo far as relates to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpenters work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays, that in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improveable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting, in which they are very dextrous, particularly in catching and killing ſeals.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe fields, or pieces of ice, are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay-whale, is in moſt eſteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe-hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone. As to the bones of his body they are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head, but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale ſpout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monſter, finding himſelf wounded, runs ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a terrible noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber extract the oil, if they have conveniences

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on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home; but nothing can ſmell ſtronger than theſe ſhips do. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, where theſe whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fiſhery. Of late the Engliſh have alſo been very ſucceſsful in it.

## ICELAND.

THIS iſland, which receives its name from the great maſſes of ice that are ſeen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and ſixty in breadth, containing about 46000 ſquare miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved ſomething riſen and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinbourgh, at eight miles diſtant from the rocks des Oiſeaux, which afterwards was found to be a new iſland. The fact is authentic, but its dimenſions and ſituation are not well aſcertained. The information brought by the laſt ſhip from thence, was, that the iſland was ſtill increaſing, and that great quantities of fire iſſued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, ſettled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Chriſtians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is ſaid, that the Norwegians alſo found among them Iriſh books, bells, and croſiers: and it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the iſland, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became ſubject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at firſt governed by an admiral, who was ſent there every year to make the neceſſary regulations: but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed who is ſtyled *Stiftſamtmann*, and who conſtantly reſides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. The plague carried off many thouſands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have alſo been depopulated by famine: for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines. Theſe have been chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1708 that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-ſized, and well made, though not very ſtrong. They are an honeſt, well intentioned people, moderately induſtrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is ſeldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hoſpitality, and exerciſe it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fiſhing, and the care of their cattle. On the coaſts, the men employ their

their time in fiſhing both winter and ſummer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral mechanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and think themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom ſettles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhould be offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection: and they are always thankful for their preſervation, when they have paſſed the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women dreſs in the coarſe cloth, called wadmal, and always wear black: thoſe who are in better circumſtances wear broad cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs, ſtuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expenſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the earth, between three ſtones; and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof. Their food principally conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skalholt (the capital of the iſland), and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerly ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved ſo pure, that any Icelander underſtands their moſt ancient traditional hiſtories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is ſaid that poetry formerly flouriſhed very much in Iceland: and we are informed that Egil Skallagrimſon, Kormack, Ogmundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in uſe till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts of ſixteen

letters was found insufficient. The first Icelandic bishop, Isleif, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after they founded four other schools, in which the youth were instructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretic philosophy. And from the introduction of the Christian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became subject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the sciences were cultivated and held in esteem.

But this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland, than any other period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, presented one hundred and sixty-two Icelandic manuscripts to the British Museum. That gentleman visited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories, that being one of their principal amusements.

John Areson, bishop of Hoolum, employed John Matthiesson, a native of Sweden, in establishing a printing-press in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the first book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidarosiense. He also printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic Bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been established at Hrappsey in this island, and at which several valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this island is situated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal consequences. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. One of these burning mountains Heckla, is the best known, especially to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of 180 English miles. The last eruption of mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded also from it in December 1771, and 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

But amongst all the curiosities in Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot spouting water-springs with which this island abounds. The hot springs at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and several others found in Italy, are considered as very remarkable;

markable: but, excepting in the laſt mentioned country, the water no where becomes ſo hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown ſo high, as the hot ſpouting water-ſprings in Iceland. All thoſe water works that have been contrived with ſo much art, and at ſo enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with theſe. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greateſt among all the French water-works, caſt up a thin column eighty feet into the air: while ſome ſprings in Iceland ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of unequal degrees of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, it ſpouts boiling water with a great noiſe, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil ſays, that he does not remember ever to have obſerved it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyſer, Rœyhum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the laſt place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for ſome of the ſpouting-ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. Frequent earthquakes, and ſubterranean noiſes, heard at the time, cauſe great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In ſeveral of theſe hot ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk, and it is likewiſe eſteemed very wholeſome when drank by the human ſpecies.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting-ſprings in Iceland is called Geyſer. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Baſaltine pillars are likewiſe very common in Iceland, which are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſeven feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places, they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but, in ſome other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immenſe maſſes of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field-ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain-ice, which is often ſeen fifty and more feet above water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that ſtate remain many months,

nay, it is ſaid, even years undiſſolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmoſphere for many miles round. When many ſuch lofty and bulky maſſes of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them, is ſo much chafed, and preſſed with ſuch violence together, that it takes fire: which circumſtance has occaſioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice cauſed ſo violent a cold in 1753, and 1754, that horſes and ſheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food: horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them; and ſometimes they aſſemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make uſe of ſpears on theſe occaſions. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king, and are not allowed to be ſold to any other perſon.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows ſucceſsfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole iſland, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are in the whole iſland.

TRADE.] The commerce of this iſland is monopolized by a Daniſh company. The ſoil upon the ſea-coaſts is tolerably good for paſture: and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Icelanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen-cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines, and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk; excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH, AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

## THE FARO or FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. long. from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

## NORWAY.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic called the Scaggerac, or Categat; on

on the weſt and north by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its poſition towards the ſea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, with intenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountains which ſeparate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longeſt day conſiſts of about 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of about ſix. In ſummer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that it has been ſaid the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws, and ſnow-falls, have however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Hardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the higheſt mountain, perhaps in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and that are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a moſt ſurpriſing landſcape. The activity of the natives in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place, where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in theſe mountains, are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though leſs liable to obſervation. One of them, called Doſſteen was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen; who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing

over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks and boards: and ſerve beſide for all domeſtic uſes; particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The chief timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, elm or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the cornel or ſloe-tree, haſel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden-tree, and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, which being of an incombuſtible nature, when its delicate fibres are woven into cloth, is cleaned by burning, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granates, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Coningſberg; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper-mines at Roraas is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quick-ſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal-mines: vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh water lakes in this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for ſhips of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and though torn from the main land bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathom in depth; and its ſite was inſtantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS, AND FISHES.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe

horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and, in the winter, ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The rein deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention him more particularly afterwards. The hares are ſmall; and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dextrous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat-kind, and have claws like tygers, they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable; as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwiſe called the erven, or vielfras, reſembles a turn-ſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth: his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburthens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and few of our readers need be told, that their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall have occaſion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is the bigneſs of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his eye reſembling that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea, or fiſh-eagle, is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food; and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aërial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race; theſe are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dextrous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bring away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is ſometimes eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable

commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to theſe birdmen in ſeizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in all fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe, which need not be here enumerated. Stock-fiſh innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without ſalting. Some fiſhes in thoſe ſeas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-moren, is a ſpecies of ſhark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an exceſſively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring fiſhing is announced to the fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales (of which ſeven different ſpecies are mentioned), in following the herring ſhoals. The large whale reſembles a cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly: they ſpout out the water, which they take in by inſpiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſt of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the ſhoals that come from under the ice at the north pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themſelves into three bodies: one of theſe ſupply the Weſtern Iſles and coaſts of Scotland, another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form a great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, coble-liau, and torſk fiſhes follow them, and feed upon their ſpawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length, and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The moſt ſeemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning ſea-monſters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian ſeas; and the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes: a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea: between the head and neck were ſeven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this ſnake was more than a hundred yards, ſome ſay fathoms. They have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor: for which reaſon, ſhip, boat, and bark maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably

markably exquiſite. The particularities related of this animal would be incredible, were they not atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin is variegated like a tortoiſe-ſhell; and his excrement, which floats upon the ſurface of the water, is corroſive, and bliſters the hands of the ſeamen if they handle it.

I ſhould be under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or korven, were not its exiſtence proved ſo ſtrongly, as ſeems to put it out of all doubt. Its bulk is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes diſport themſelves, and ſea-weeds grow: upon a farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong; and his death was attended by ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where it died was impaſſable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may ſafely ſay, that the exiſtence of this fiſh being proved, accounts for many of theſe phænomena of floating iſlands, and tranſitory appearances in the ſea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of ſuch an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women hold their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight ſpans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much reſemblance as an ape has to the human ſpecies; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterize its head; its arms are ſhort, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their ſexes: though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different deſcriptions which they have given us of their fiſhes; but they are ſo well authenticated, that I make no doubt a new and very ſurpriſing theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

CURIOSITIES.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the ſea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Helleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard

heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; ſo violent that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl, and there diſappears, being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible; and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs into which they are about to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed the utmoſt terror when they find the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Malſtrom is a ſea vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the gulf of Bothnia: but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſe again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered, that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phænomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living, and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly reſembling the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artiſan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few by profeſſion who are hatters, ſhoe-makers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper ſubject of contemplation even to a philoſopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle ſtate prolongs their ages ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate,

climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any coverture upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of an hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour: and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Frederickſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm; they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what ſhall be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the uſe of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with that of Denmark.

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## DENMARK* PROPER, or JUTLAND, excluſive of the ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

### EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 240† | between | 54 and 58 North latitude. |
| Breadth | 114 | | 8 and 11 Eaſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the eaſt by the Sound; on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; and the German ſea divides it from Great-Britain on the weſt.

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* See Mallet's Denmark, p. 1. to 18. vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt, a method which the author has every where obſerved; and it ſeems to be the practice of other writers on the ſubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry others parts it is not 50.

Denmark

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts: the peninſula of Jutland anciently called *Cimeria Cherſoneſus*, and the iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Amſterdam. Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inhabitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all their harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs, and the ancient nobility by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch a power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery; ſo that they were bought and ſold with the lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleſwick and Holſtein, have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers has, indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts; but they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark, or in Holſtein, happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he ſhall think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage, about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle to 30,000. Beſides numbers of black cattle, they have ſheep, and hogs, and game; and the ſea coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

Port-

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual numeration made in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt, in Weſtphalia; they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population, is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee, by which

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Jutland numbered | 358,136 | Iceland | 46,201 |
| Denmark Iceland | 283,466 | Duchy of Sleſwick | 243,605 |
| Funen | 143,988 | Duchy of Holſtein | 134,665 |
| Norway | 723,141 | Oldenburgh | 62,854 |
| Iſlands of Ferro | 4,754 | Delmenhorſt | 16,217 |
| | | Sum Total | 2,017,027 |

Several of the ſmaller iſlands included in the diſtrict of Fionia are omitted in this computation, which may contain a few thouſands.

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, yet, every thing conſidered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark hath been ſo ſhackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of her miniſters, and her merchants are ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of her government, that this kingdom, which might be rendered rich and flouriſhing, is at preſent one of the moſt indigent and diſtreſſed ſtates in Europe; and theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it otherwiſe would be, if the adminiſtration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agriculture, and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but by a continued ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterpriſing, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehenſion. They value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhew. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. They fall much into that indolence and timidity which form a coſiderable part of the characters of the modern Danes; but in other reſpects are well-meaning people, and acquit themſelves properly in their reſpective employments. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin to viſit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into ſix dioceſes; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: theſe dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe profeſſion is entirely to ſuperintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a diſtinction of their eccleſiaſtical dreſs, for they have neither cathedral nor eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are ſo good, that they are revered by the people. They are paid by the ſtate, as all the church-lands were wiſely appropriated to the government at the Reformation.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of

of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The univerſity of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents; theſe funds are ſaid to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines; and the round tower and Chriſtian's haven diſplay the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus: not to mention that the Danes begin now to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama. It appears, however, that, in general, literature receives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be conſidered as the principal cauſe of its being ſo little cultivated by the Danes.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, was originally a ſettlement of ſailors, and firſt founded by ſome wandering fiſhermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very ſtrong, and defended by four royal caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others, belonging to the Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitals. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in their lanes chiefly of timber. Its univerſity has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits indeed of only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid far to exceed that of Venice. The road for the ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. But notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, there is little appearance of induſtry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, can boaſt of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually almoſt as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village, and, at that time, there is ſcarcely a coach heard to rattle through the ſtreets.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapeſtry in many of them, beautiful, particularly the ſtory of Eſther, and an aſſortment of wild beaſts, after the manner of Quida. A colonnade at each extremity forms the ſtables, which for their extent and beauty of furniture, are equal to any in Europe. But the fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about 20 Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Frederickſburg. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian the IVth, and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars, and on the ſummit of the building are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very

very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The Knights' hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the cieling is a moſt minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen Matilda ſpent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elſinour is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with 12 windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden, is ſhewn the very ſpot where, according to that tradition, that prince was poiſoned.

Jagerſburgh is a park which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage; which is remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments, and the quaintneſs of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

COMMERCE.] The kingdom of Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a great variety of timber, and other materials for ſhip-building; and ſome of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among theſe, beſides fir, and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtockfiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Daniſh dominions, are conſequently ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportation of ſkins is forbidden. The imports are, ſalt, wine, brandy, and ſilk from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourſe with England, from whence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England. But nothing ſhows the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a more favourable light, than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

In 1612, Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India Company at Copenhagen; and ſoon after, four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617, they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to ſettle here: ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt India Company were ſoon rich enough to pay their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The Company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice-trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt India Company

pany found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt India Company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention, that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg on the coaſt of Guinea; and carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the Conſuls in the time of the Roman Republic, and of the emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both of the form of a hunting horn: that of gold ſeems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they ſay, was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion, that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. I ſhall juſt mention in this place, that ſeveral veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments; ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS. The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally much upon the ſame plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate where he preſided,

ſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided finally all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates; who were compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility, and ſecondly, the order of the citizens and farmers; and after the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other; the crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands, which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances. And when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppreſs and tyrannize over the people. Chriſtian the Second, by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion, loſt his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the Third, by uniting himſelf with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. At length, in the reign of Frederick the Third, the people inſtead of exerting themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, in hopes thereby of rendering themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility. A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſo miſerable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than *ſlaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, the ſpeaker of the commons, catched hold of the term *Slavery*; the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could to confirm what had been done.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, ſigned each a ſeparate act; by which they conſented that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in

the male line, and by which they inveſted the king with abſolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family. A relic, which perpetuates the memory of the humbled inſolence of the nobles, and the hypocriſy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge againſt them, perſuaded the people that his only wiſhes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, cruſhing themſelves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederick the Third had been effected, the king re-united in his perſon all the rights of the ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to intruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects; the ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwick in the town of that name.

As to matters of importance, the king for the moſt part decides in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. It is in this council that the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the royal authority; and that any great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed, and approved or rejected by the king. It is here likewiſe, or in the cabinet, that he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extenſion, or their reſtriction; and, in fact, it is here that the king expreſſes his will upon the moſt important affairs of his kingdom.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to adminiſter juſtice in the ſupreme court of his kingdom; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, and the judges the ſame in giving their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark; but notwithſtanding this, it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice in this country againſt one of the nobility, or againſt one who is favoured by the court, or by the chief miniſter. If the laws are ſo clear in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtains an order from the king to ſtop all the law-proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws, and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have ſince been publiſhed

published, and is nearly the same with that published in Norway. These laws are very just and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can change and alter the laws, and dispense with them as he pleases, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people of Denmark undergo a great degree of tyranny and oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which their liberties have been surrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging: in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punishments are not common in Denmark: and the other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to public labour and imprisonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK. After the accession of his present majesty, his court seemed for some time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, observed a most respectable neutrality during the late war; but never could get rid of French influence, notwithstanding his connexions with Great Britain. The subsidies he received maintained his army; but his family-disputes with Russia concerning Holstein, and the ascendancy which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention many other matters, did not suffer him to act that decisive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his situation; especially about the time when the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded. His present Danish majesty's plan seemed, soon after his accession, to be that of forming his dominions into a state of independency, by availing himself of their natural advantages. But sundry events which have since happened, and the general feebleness of his administration, have prevented any farther expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at least in any great degree, during the present reign.

With regard to the external interests of Denmark, they are certainly best secured by cultivating a friendship with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enable her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and she has been particularly courted by the Mahometan states, on account of her ship-building stores.

The present imperial family of Russia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holstein; but there is at present small appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by so enterprising a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repossess themselves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greatest danger that can arise to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic sea (as has happened more than once) is so frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which case the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conquest of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Danish majesty's revenues have three sources: the im-

impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The reader is to obſerve, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers, ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait of half a mile between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip and value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of the light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes, who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it: but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The firſt treaty relative to it, was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elſinour, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſinour, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. ſterling yearly.

The following is a liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates.

| | Rix-dollars at 4s. each. |
|---|---|
| Tribute of hard corn or land-tax, | 1,000,000 |
| Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound-rents, exciſe, marriages, &c. | 950,000 |
| Cuſtom-houſe duties, | 154,000 |
| Duties of the Sound, | 200,000 |
| Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits, | 27,000 |
| Tythes and poll-tax of Norway, | 770,000 |
| Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand, and Chriſtiana, | 160,000 |
| Other tolls, | 552,000 |
| Revenue from mines, | 300,000 |
| Revenue from Sleſwick, Holſtein, Oldenburgh, and Delmenhorſt, | 690,000 |
| Taxes on acorns, and maſt from beech, | 20,000 |
| Tolls on the Weſer, | 7,500 |
| Poſt-office, | 70,000 |
| Farms of Iceland and Ferro, | 35,000 |
| Farms of Bronholm, | 14,800 |
| Oyſter Fiſhery, | 22,000 |
| Stamp Paper, | 40,000 |
| Sum total, | 5,012,300 |
| In Engliſh money, | 1,002,460 |

By

By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to English money £. 454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops, which they kept up with vast care. The present military force of Denmark consists of 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greatest part of which consists of a militia who receive no pay, but are registered on the army list, and every Sunday exercised. The regular troops are about 20,000, and mostly foreigners, or most of whom are officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to trust his security in the hands of those he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter: and in Denmark the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money. The present fleet of Denmark is composed of 36 ships of the line, and 18 frigates; but many of the ships being old, and wanting great repairs, if they can send out 25 ships upon the greatest emergency, this is supposed to be the most they can do. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the materials necessary for the use of the marine. They have 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchant-man without permission from the admiralty; 4000 of these are kept in constant pay and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings a month, but then they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodgings allowed for themselves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] These are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Daneburg*: the former was instituted by Christian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-blue watered ribbon; worn like the George in England over the right shoulder: the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addressed by the title of excellency. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is said to be of the highest antiquity, instituted in the year 1219, but it became obsolete, and was revived in 1671 by Christian V. consist of a white ribbon with red edges, worn scarf ways over the right shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, *Pietate & justitia*. The badge is a cross pattee enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto *Restitutor*. The number of knights is numerous, and not limited.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief history of Denmark to a very extraordinary phænomenon; I mean, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the person of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was lost in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other historians of his age, has adopted, and at the same time ennobled by his style, the most ridiculous absurdities of remote antiquity. We can however collect enough from him to conclude, that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Irish, and other

northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military atchievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom they commanded were ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms, Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature, under that prince, throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial: that ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone-houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity.—When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England, under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century under Canute the Great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the expreſſion. Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, ſhe formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtyled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, fell to nothing; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtian II. king of Denmark, one of the moſt complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars, ſee the Introduction), whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued ſo late as the 13th century to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe: hence by ſir William Temple, and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouſe of Europe.*

bloody

bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederick, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew, who openly embraced the opinions of Luther, and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark, by that wiſe and politic prince Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league, formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but, though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Frederickſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude theſe ſevere terms; but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederic, under theſe misfortunes, endeared him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who ſhewed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was ſucceeded in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Chriſtian obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landſcroon: and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in his military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtian, however, did not deſiſt from his military attempts; and at laſt he became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains.

Chriſtian, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein; and probably muſt have become maſter of that duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great ſervice againſt the French in the war of queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf, by ſeizing great part of the ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Toningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with a moſt imbittered ſpirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhal, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in conſequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having two years before ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects; whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction *, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein Lawenburgh, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt; in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the Houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Chriſtian a ſubſidy of 70,000l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken; but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766. His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his preſent Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Carolina-Matilda. But this alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, yet had in the event a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. She poſſeſſes a great degree of diſſimulation, and when the princeſs Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her, that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, ſhe became the depoſitory of all the young queen's ſecrets, whilſt at the ſame time it is ſaid ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which ſhe knew he was naturally too much inclined: and at length it was ſo ordered, that a miſtreſs was thrown in the king's way, whom he was perſuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen Matilda; and under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with, the management of public affairs. This ſtung the old queen to the quick; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied

occupied with ſchemes of revenge. She at length found means to gratify it in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter, and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head and patroneſs of the party. Old count Molke, an artful diſplaced ſtateſman, and others, who were well verſed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had unexperienced young perſons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not ſufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very ſoon predicted their ruin. Struenſe and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time: and thereby made a great number of enemies, among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was that things ſhould continue upon the ſame footing that they had been for ſome time before. After this queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter, but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw her, ſhe immediately turned back, and with a malicious ſmile, declared, that the child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee; which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated againſt the reigning queen; and another report was alſo induſtriouſly ſpread, that the governing party had formed a deſign to ſuperſede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime-miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry, was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo wanted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were ſome of the creatures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe, that it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted, that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions: his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the proper meaſures to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon, or dethrone the king; and that if that could not be properly ſupported, by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Moltke, and moſt of the queen-dowager's friends, who had any thing to loſe, drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excuſing themſelves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However, the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active

tive inſtruments for the execution of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country-dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, got up and dreſſed himſelf, and went with the queen-dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichſtedt and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet-de-chambre to awake him, and in the midſt of the ſurpriſe and alarm, that this unexpected intruſion excited, they informed him, that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant buſy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to ſign: and that the only means he could uſe to prevent ſo imminent a danger, was to ſign thoſe orders without loſs of time, which they had brought with them, for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid, that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and heſitation. Count Rantzau, and three officers, were diſpatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which ſhe was conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeized in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, ſome of his adherents, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeized the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, ſupported and aſſiſted by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers who had a hand in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in all the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic preſided, and a commiſſion of eight members, to examine the papers of the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorouſly treated in priſon: they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly cut off; but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards ſet at liberty. Struenſee at firſt had abſolutely denied having any criminal intercourſe with the queen; but this he afterwards confeſſed; and though he is ſaid by ſome to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this reſpect were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit. Beſide, no meaſures were adopted by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character in this reſpect. But in May, his Britannic

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majeſty ſent a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips to convey that princeſs to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future reſidence. She died there, of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears at preſent to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding, as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs; but on the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council, formed under the auſpices of the prince royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counterſigned by the prince royal.

Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princeſs Carolina Matilda of England; and has iſſue, Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768; Louiſa Auguſta, princeſs royal, born July 7, 1771.

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## His Danish Majesty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia (termed Ducal Holſtein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck; but on the 16th of November, 1773, the Ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it now, with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built profeſſedly in that ſituation by the kings of Denmark, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flock to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itſelf.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein, called Stormar. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a vaſt variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having

having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it ſtill carries on a great trade. The Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hans Towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy, and governed by its own magiſtrates. It has 20 pariſh churches beſides a large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the whole duchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhurſt, about 2000 ſquare miles; they lie on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals have the ſame name; the firſt has the remains of a fortification, and the laſt is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh majeſty. The country abounds with marſhes and heaths, but its horſes are the beſt in Germany.

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# LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I ſhould treat of it under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method that I obſerve in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME. The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71° 30′ N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites or Ruſſians. It would be little better than waſting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes, may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth: it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts: generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. The Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily conceive that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and during winter, it never riſes: but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpi-

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rits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds, preſents the Laplanders with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts, which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt picturesque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS. The reader muſt form in his mind a vaſt maſs of mountains, irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland; they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial Paradiſe: even roſes and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron, copper, and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe been ſometimes found in theſe rivers, but never in the ſeas.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that it is frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*; which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All deſcribers of this animal have taken notice of the cracking noiſe that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the ſame climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant however the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions

the ſnapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may ſerve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs: they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to ſupport their maſter. Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in woods. Their fleſh is a well taſted food, whether freſh or dried; their ſkin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body; their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Were I to recount every circumſtance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling; they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their ſurpriſing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) ſeems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of thoſe carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. But after all theſe abatements, the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without the rein-deer, which ſerve them for ſo many purpoſes.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that it is with difficulty they underſtand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſticks that they call Pidave, and which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics are alſo the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Miſſionaries, from the chriſtianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries, as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddi-

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ties of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believe, that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians, who are a peculiar ſet of men, make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progreſs the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Theſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. This is alſo a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul, and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fiſhers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitation on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, from whence they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains, and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the Lapland fiſhers. Some of them poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one is ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the Woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chuſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chace: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides looking after the rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chace, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and tanning hides: but it is underſtood to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen; in which, it is ſaid, the women never intefere.

The

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix in height. They cover them according to the ſeaſon, and the means of the poſſeſſor; ſome with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night, they lie down quite naked; and to ſeparate the apartments, they place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their cloaths, or lie upon them. In winter, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin, or even ſilver baſons: to theſe may be added, the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon a poſt, which is the trunk of a tree, cut off at about the height of a fathom or ſix foot from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and proviſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of their proviſions; the chace and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their principal diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it either alone, or mixed with wild berries, into the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the fleſh of the bear is conſidered by them as their moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſea-dog; as well as all ſorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fleſh and fiſh dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, and without any ſort of dreſſing. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk: they make alſo broths and fiſh-ſoups. Brandy is very ſcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a mat on the ground; and then men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a ſhort prayer: and, as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In the dreſs of the Laplanders they uſe no kind of linen. The men wear cloſe breeches, reaching down to their ſhoes, which are made of untanned ſkin, pointed, and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at the breaſt. Over this, they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves, whoſe ſkirts reach down to the knees, and which is faſtened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To this girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoaking apparatus. Their cloaths are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the cloſe coat of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorned

dorned with liſts of a different colour from that of a cap. The women wear breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewiſe the implements for ſmoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. Their cloſe coat hath a collar, which comes up ſomewhat higher than that of the men. Beſides theſe, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three times round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear alſo caps fitted to the ſhape of the head; and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general conſiderably ſhorter than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman who was ſuckling her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, often well made, and extremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an unexpected object, though it is in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming: in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxyſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and, on coming to themſelves, are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her father with brandy; when, with ſome difficulty he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable; which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from the father by her lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe, rixdollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. And the reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rixdollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the

the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and, ſo far as we know, are never employed in any army.

# SWEDEN.

## Extent and Situation.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 800 | between | 56 and 69 North latitude |
| Breadth | 500 | | 10 and 30 East longitude. |

**Boundaries and divisions.** THIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe twe laſt provinces belong now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland: and 7. The Swediſh iſlands. Great abatements muſt be made for the lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.

| Sweden. | Square Miles. | Sum total. | Length. | Breadth. | Capital Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 76,835 | 228,715 | | | |
| Sweden Proper — — | 47,900 | | 342 | 194 | Stockholm. N. Lat. 59—30. E. Long. 19—15 |
| Gothland — — | 25,975 | | 253 | 160 | Calmar. |
| Schonen — — | 2,960 | | 77 | 56 | Lunden. |
| Lapland and W. Bothnia. | 76,000 | 76,835 | 420 | 340 | Torne. Uma. |
| Swediſh Finland, and Eaſt Bothnia | 73,000 | | 395 | 225 | Abo. Cajenburg. |
| Gothland I. — | 1000 | | 80 | 23 | Wiſby. |
| Oeland I. — — | 560 | | 84 | 9 | Barkholm. |
| Upper Saxony } Pomerania, P. | 960 | 150,560 | 47 | 24 | Stralſund. |
| Upper Saxony } Rugen I. | 360 | | 24 | 21 | Bergen. |
| | | 1,820 | | | |

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Uplandia, | Helſingia, |
| Sudermania, | Dalicarlia, |
| Weſtmania, | Medelpedia, |
| Nericia, | Angermania, |
| Geſtricia, | Jemptia. |

Of Gothland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Eaſt Gothland, | Dalia, |
| Weſt Gothland, | Schonen, |
| Smaland, | Bleking, |
| Wermeland, | Halland. |

Of Swediſh Lapland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Thorne Lapmark, | Pithia Lapmark, |
| Kimi Lapmark, | Uma Lapmark. |
| Lula Lapmark, | |

The principal places in Weſt Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Eaſt Bothnia, | Nyland, |
| Cajania, | Travaſtia, |
| Savoloxia, | Finland Proper. |

The Swediſh iſles are Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is pretty ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſame may be ſaid with regard to this article. Summer burſts from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces cryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and ſmelting-houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is

loaded

loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of ſtate. Theſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years, the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,cool. ſterling. Dr. Buſching thinks that they conſtituted two thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that the extortions of the Swediſh government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture in Sweden; ſo that the Swedes will be obliged to apply themſelves to other branches of trade and improvements, eſpecially in agriculture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] A few leagues from Gottenburg there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, from the height into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber that are precipitated down it, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern part of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords ſulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuſcript copy of a tranſlation of the Goſpels in Gothic, done by a biſhop 1300 years ago.

SEAS.] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are frozen up uſually four months in the year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean, never mixing with it, becauſe a current ſets always out of the Baltic ſea into the ocean.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Theſe differ little from thoſe already deſcribed in Norway and Denmark, to which I muſt refer; only the Swediſh horſes are known to be more ſerviceable in war than the German. The Swediſh hawks, when carried to France, have been known to reviſit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inſcription on a ſmall gold plate, ſignifying that he belonged to the French king. The fiſhes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the ſame with thoſe in other northern countries, and taken in ſuch quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are ſalted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the ſeals, taken in the gulf of Finland, is a conſiderable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diverſity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they are known to have had different characters in different ages. At preſent, their peaſants ſeem to be a heavy plodding race of men, ſtrong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſting themſelves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile claſſes are much of the ſame caſt; but their application and perſeverance is diſcovered among them all. One could however, form no idea that the modern Swedes are the deſcendants of thoſe, who, under

Guſtavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through diſtant countries, and ſhook the foundations of the greateſt empires. The intrigues of their ſenators dragged them to take part in the late war againſt Pruſſia; yet their behaviour was ſpiritleſs, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hoſpitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national intereſts. The dreſs, exerciſes, and diverſions, of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have but little to ſpare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

Religion.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have ſuch an averſion to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400 l. a year; and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuperintendants, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direction in the affairs of ſtate; but their morals, and the ſanctity of their lives, endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious œconomy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

Language, learning, and learned men.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſſelquiſt, into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expence for that country, all Haſſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo was the late celebrated Linnæus, who carried natural philoſophy, in ſome branches at leaſt, particularly botany, to the higheſt pitch. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature, is well known to the public; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midſt of the late diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a conſiderable height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

Universities.] The principal is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There

are near 1500 ſtudents in this univerſity; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge five or ſix together, in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; the largeſt of whoſe ſalaries does not exceed 130 l. or 140 l. per annum, and they are in general not half that ſum. There is another univerſity at Abo in Finland, but not ſo well endowed, nor ſo flouriſhing: and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity *.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic, are bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fiſh. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactures of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Book-ſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden, They have alſo founderies for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flatting-mills; mills alſo for fulling, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off in Swediſh ſhips; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-act, like that of the Engliſh. Theſe promiſing appearances were, however, blaſted, by the madneſs and jealouſies of the Swediſh government.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it ſtands about 760 miles north-eaſt from London, upon ſix contiguous iſlands, and built upon piles. The caſtle, though commodious and covered with copper, has neither ſtrength nor beauty; but accommodates the royal court, and the national courts and colleges. The number of houſe-keepers, who pay taxes, are 60,000. The harbour is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, and this city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce that are common to other great European cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666 l. 13s. 4d. ſterling.

* An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the courſe of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, Ulrica; who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker; and each choſe a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain; becauſe, as is has been obſerved, the king's prerogative was far more bounded.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the ſenate, which were no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe choſe three perſons, who were to be preſented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand-marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator was accountable for his conduct to the ſtates. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was not ſo great as that of a ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes had introduced into the adminiſtration of civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is ſufficient to ſay, that though nothing could be more plauſible, yet nothing was leſs practicable than the whole plan of their diſtributive powers. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they muſt paſs.

But in Auguſt, 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was totally changed by the preſent king, by force, and in the moſt unexpected manner,

manner. The circumſtances which attended this extraordinary revolution, will be found at the cloſe of our review of the hiſtory of Sweden. By that event, the Swedes, inſtead of having the particular defects of their conſtitution rectified, found their king inveſted with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king is to aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes; he is to have the ſole diſpoſal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments, civil and military; and though by this new ſyſtem the king does not openly claim a power of impoſing taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and in caſe of invaſion, or preſſing neceſſity, the king may impoſe ſome taxes till the ſtates can be aſſembled. But of this neceſſity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the ſtates depends wholly upon his will and pleaſure. And when they are aſſembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is eaſy to diſcern, that a government thus conſtituted, can be little removed from one of the moſt deſpotic kind. However, the Swediſh nation is ſtill amuſed with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government. For in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of fifty-ſeven articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of ſeventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania: and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the ſtate, whenever the king ſhall demand it. In that caſe, if the queſtions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the ſenators ſhould be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is ſaid, ſhall follow their advice. But this, it may be obſerved, is a circumſtance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a ſenate, conſiſting chiefly of officers of the crown, ſhould give their opinions againſt the king; and in every other caſe the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are ſome other apparent reſtraints of the regal power in the new ſyſtem of government, but they are in reality very inconſiderable. It is ſaid, indeed, that the king cannot eſtabliſh any new law, nor aboliſh any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates. But the king of Sweden, according to the preſent conſtitution, is inveſted with ſo much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any perſon will venture to make an oppoſition to whatever he ſhall propoſe.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Sweden is beheading and hanging; for murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after beheading, inſtead of being quartered, are burned. No capital puniſhment is inflicted without the ſentence being confirmed by the king. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reviſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or a mitigation of puniſhment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, houſebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment, and hard labour, either for life, or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion till the reign of the preſent king;

king; but, in 1773, his Swediſh majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Guſtavus Vaſa, a treaty of alliance firſt took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards, Sweden alſo entered into a ſubſidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. In conſequence of theſe treaties, France by degrees acquired an aſcendancy in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the intereſts of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a ſubſidy from France for above 100 years paſt, and has much ſuffered by it. During the reign of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was ſacrificed to the intereſt of France; and during the laſt war with the king of Pruſſia, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has ſince been conſiderably augmented, ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their wiſeſt men have perceived the miſchievous tendency of their connection with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet in favour of French meaſures The perſons who compoſed it went under the denomination of *Hats*. The objects they held out to the nation was, the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power, and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who had contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domeſtic welfare of the nation. The ſyſtem therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a cloſe correſpondence with Ruſſia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. Theſe were ſtyled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued, but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real intereſt of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful: but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendancy. Theſe parties, however, are now aboliſhed, in conſequence of the preſent king of Sweden having made ſuch a total change in the conſtitution of government. And as, whatever reaſon his ſubjects may have to complain of him, on account of the power he has aſſumed, he is certainly a prince of very conſiderable penetration and abilities, and it is probable, that when his own intereſts and thoſe of his ſubjects do not interfere, he will attend to the advantage of the nation. His ſagacity, therefore, there is reaſon to conclude, will lead him to promote the external political intereſts of Sweden; and he may, perhaps, be contented, under the guarantee of Great-Britain, to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality with regard both to Denmark and Ruſſia. The intereſt of Sweden even reaches as far as Turkey; for that empire found its account in balancing the power of Ruſſia by that of Charles XII.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Ruſſians ſince, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verden, and other places that kingdom was ſtripped of, contained about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver

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ſpecie in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced a million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d. but theſe are very ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little ſpecie in circulation; large pieces of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank notes, being almoſt their only circulating money.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates; and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum, is charged with a foot-ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary cloaths, and about 20s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden-houſe is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid, that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, but before the loſs of Livonia to 60,000; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ſhips of the line; but of late years their ſhips, together with their docks, have been ſuffered greatly to run to decay.

ROYAL STYLE] The king's ſtyle is king of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD]. Theſe are, the order of the *North* or *Polar Star*, inſtituted by Frederic I. in 1748, conſiſting of 36 members, of which 12 are ſtyled commanders: the badge is a golden ſtar of eight points, enamelled white and edged with gold; on the centre is a circle enamelled blue, thereon a ſtar of five points enamelled white, encircled with this motto, *Neſcit Occaſum*. The order of the *Sword*, inſtituted by Guſtavus Vaſa, anno 1525. but ſoon declined, and lay dormant till the year 1748, when Frederic I. revived it as a military order. It conſiſts of three claſſes, grand-croſſes, commanders, and junior knights. The enſign is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white and edged with gold: in the centre is a ſword erect, white hilt and pommel gold, between three ducal coronets gold; between the four points of the croſs are four ducal coronets, and towards the ends of the points ſix ſwords gold; over the two in chief is a regal crown of Sweden, the cap enamelled blue. The order of the *Seraphim* or of *Jeſus*, is the chief order firſt inſtituted by Magnus II. anno 1334. It flouriſhed from that time till the Reformation was introduced, and then was ſet aſide, but Frederic I. revived it alſo in the year 1748. The badge of this order is a ſtar of eight points enamelled white; the centre blue, with the arms of Sweden, and the initial letters I. H. S. Over the H a croſs, the arms encloſed with four ſeraphs heads, and in the arms, under the loweſt crown, are the paſſion nails: the collar is compoſed of eleven golden

golden heads of ſeraphs, with wings expanded, and eleven blue patriarchal croſſes enamelled on gold, all joined together with chains of gold. The order of *Vaſa*, inſtituted by the preſent king in May 1772. There are three claſſes, grand-croſſes, commanders, and junior knights. The ribbon of the order is green and watered; the collar chaſed and enamelled, compoſed of four wheat-ſheaves, eight ſhields of the arms of Sweden, and four of the arms of Holſtein, the whole joined with ſmall chains of gold. To the centre is pendent a medal of gold, chaſed and pierced with a garb, as in the collar, with a Swediſh motto: "*Guſtaf. Deu. tredie inſtickſtare*, 1772," which is the enſign.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. I ſhall not here follow the wild romances of Swediſh hiſtorians through the early ages, from Magog the great-grand-ſon of Noah. It is ſufficient to ſay, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor ſhall I diſpute her being the paramount ſtate of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway) and that ſhe borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Chriſtianity by Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſting, and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes an appearance more regular, and affords wherewith to recompenſe the attention of thoſe who chuſe to make it an object of their ſtudies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained, or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, and obtained poſſeſſions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council called the Senate, which was maſter of all public deliberations. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſenſions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and, what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themſelves of the diſſenſions in Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under the nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Magnus Ladulus, crowned in 1276, ſeems to have been the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to

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ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who had ever ſat on the Swediſh throne; by his art and addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increaſe of the regal power; and whilſt, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of his power, Magnus humbled the haughty ſpirit of his nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted; he, at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and ſeveral commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great diſorder and confuſion, and the government was for a long time in the moſt unſettled ſtate.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this laſt in 1394. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North, by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Several revolutions enſued after the death of Margaret; and at length Chriſtian II. the laſt king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was alſo king of Sweden, engaged in a ſcheme to render himſelf entirely abſolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this deſign no leſs barbarous, proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacring the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1520. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtian, no one remained in Sweden, but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already ſignalized his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was laid on his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped, under the diſguiſe of a peaſant, to the mountains of Dalicarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how to prevent his diſcovery he wrought in the braſs-mines, how he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence, and in fine ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage, but warlike inhabitants of Dalicarlia, to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe, and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his perſon. He was created therefore firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the univerſal conſent, and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince who had poſſeſſed this dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles, had rid him of thoſe

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proud and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther which began at this time to prevail in the North, the force with which they were ſupported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country; and the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the ſevereſt penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all government, and, when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were ſoon viſible: arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

Guſtavus died in 1559; while his eldeſt ſon Eric, was preparing to embark for England to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. John's ſon Sigiſmund, was, however, choſen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew, Sigiſmund, endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt he and his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigiſmund, who was himſelf a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates, though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages; all of which he ſurmounted. He narrowly miſſed being maſter of Ruſſia; but the Ruſſians were ſo tenacious of their independency, that his ſcheme was baffled. In 1617 he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a ſum of money beſides.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a vaſt deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than hiſtorians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his

his enterprising ſpirit, and ſupported his ancient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom Guſtavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzick, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant cauſe placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is ſufficient to ſay, that after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous count Tilly the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a battle; which, had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals, trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that he had in his eye ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenſtiern was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1648, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new ſyſtem.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court, Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men; to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts; but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark, has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age he received a ſubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England

and Holland againſt him. He afterwards joined with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being beaten in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburg made himſelf maſter of the Swediſh Pomerania; the biſhop of Munſter over-ran Breden and Verden, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles by the treaty of St. Germains, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter: but made a very bad uſe of the tranquillity he had regained; for he enſlaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power deſpotic, and his army formidable. The ſtates loſt all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen, but he ſaved himſelf by flight: and Charles became ſo conſiderable a power, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who thereby became his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head againſt them all; and beſieging Copenhagen he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was reeſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men: but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike atchievements equalled, if they did not excel, thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland: but ſtained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland in 1705, and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition, however, were ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks found it however convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-ſhot, as it is generally ſaid, at the ſiege of Frederic-ſhall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed, that Charles

was

was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Fredericſhall, but that a piſtol from ſome nearer hand, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is ſaid to be very prevalent among the beſt informed perſons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſsful and pernicious war, nor would ever have liſtened to the voice of peace, or conſulted the internal tranquillity of his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded, as hath been already mentioned, by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have alſo ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered upon the exerciſe of government. Their firſt care was to make a peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the *Hats*, which hath been already ſpoken of; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was, at the ſame time, the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Heſſe-Caſſel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince, and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all the effects of his reſentment, and forget the indignity done to his ſon. The prince's ſucceſſor, Adolphus Frederic, married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia; and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and much harraſſed by the contending Swediſh factions, and found his ſituation extremely troubleſome, in conſequence of the reſtraints and oppoſition which he met with from the ſenate. He paſſed the greateſt part of his reign very diſagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February, 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus the Third, the preſent reigning prince. He poſſeſſes abilities greatly ſuperior to thoſe of his father, and has much more ambition. He was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden, his underſtanding had been much cultivated, he hath an inſinuating addreſs, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. In conſequence of the death of the late king, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the coronation oath for

the preſent king. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve twenty-four articles, relative to his future adminiſtration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promiſes before God to ſupport the government of the kingdom, as then eſtabliſhed; to maintain the rights and liberties of the ſtates, the liberties and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, and to reign with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and conformable to the preſent act of capitulation. In conſequence of the declaration of the ſtates, the king ſhall regard any perſon, who ſhall openly or clandeſtinely endeavour to introduce abſolute ſovereignty, as an enemy of the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, as every perſon muſt take an oath reſpecting this matter, before he can take poſſeſſion of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the ſenate, the king promiſes to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which were to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much leſs againſt, their advice. To the end that the council of ſtate may be ſo much the more convinced of the inviolable deſigns of his majeſty, and of his ſincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely diſengaged from their oath of fidelity, in caſe that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And laſtly, the king threatens any perſon with his higheſt diſpleaſure, who ſhall be ſo inconſiderate as to propoſe to him a greater degree of power and ſplendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majeſty deſires only to gain the affections of his faithful ſubjects, and to be their powerful defender againſt any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But ſcarcely had the king taken theſe ſolemn oaths to rule according to the then eſtabliſhed form of government, and accepted the crown upon theſe conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding theſe oaths only as matters of ceremony. And he made uſe of every art, the moſt profound diſſimulation, and the utmoſt dexterity and addreſs, in order to render this hazardous enterpriſe ſucceſsful. At his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increaſe his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who preſented themſelves. Neither rank, fortune, nor intereſt, were neceſſary to obtain acceſs to him: it was ſufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cauſe of complaint to lay before him. He liſtened to the meaneſt of his ſubjects with affability, and entered into the minuteſt details that concerned them; he informed himſelf of their private affairs, and ſeemed to intereſt himſelf in their happineſs. This conduct made him conſidered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the mean time, there happened ſome contentions between the different orders of the Swediſh ſtates; and no methods were left untried to foment theſe jealouſies. Emiſſaries were likewiſe planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpoſe of ſowing diſcontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them diſaffected to the eſtabliſhed government, and of exciting them to an inſurrection. At length when the king found his ſcheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper meaſures for bringing a conſiderable number of the officers and ſoldiers * into his intereſt, on the 19th of Auguſt,

* The fidelity which was manifeſted by a private ſoldier, on this occaſion, deſerves [illegible] recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being deſirous of viſi-

guſt, 1772, he totally overturned the Swediſh conſtitution of government. In leſs than an hour he made himſelf maſter of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the ſenate were aſſembled, and made all the members of it priſoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the tranſaction in which the king was engaged, till the ſcheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arſenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers ſtood over theſe with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a paſſport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The ſenators were then confined in ſeparate apartments in the palace, and many others who were ſuppoſed to be zealouſly attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arreſt. The remainder of the day the king employed in viſiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magiſtrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were alſo tendered the next day to the people in general, to whom he addreſſed a ſpeech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only intention was to reſtore tranquillity to his native country, by ſuppreſſing licentiouſneſs, overturning the ariſtocratic form of government, reviving the old Swediſh liberty, and reſtoring the ancient laws of Sweden, ſuch as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," ſaid he, "as I have already "done, all idea of the abhorred abſolute power, or what is called *ſove-* "*reignty*, eſteeming it now, as before, my greateſt glory to be the firſt "citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an aſſembly of the ſtates for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet ſhould abſent himſelf, he ſhould be conſidered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21ſt of Auguſt, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take poſſeſſion of the ſquare, where the houſe of nobles ſtands. The palace was inveſted on all ſides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the ſtates were to be aſſembled. Theſe were not only charged, but ſoldiers ſtood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The ſeveral orders of the ſtates were here compelled to aſſemble by the king's order, and theſe military preparations were made in order to aſſiſt their deliberations. The king being ſeated on his throne, ſurrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addreſſed a ſpeech to the ſtates, he ordered a ſecretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the ſtates for their acceptance. As they were ſurrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marſhal of the diet, and the ſpeakers of the other orders, ſigned the form of government; and the ſtates took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himſelf. This extraordinary tranſaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of pſalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown,

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ing the arſenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refuſed. "Do you know who you are ſpeaking to?" ſaid the king. "Yes;" replied the ſoldier, but I likewiſe know my duty."—*Vide* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, publiſhed by Charles Francis Sheridan, eſq. who was ſecretary to the Britiſh envoy in Sweden, at the time of the revolution.

began to ſing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the aſſembly. He afterwards gave them to underſtand, that he intended in ſix years time again to convene an aſſembly of the ſtates. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodſhed, in which the Swedes ſurrendered that conſtitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark againſt any deſpotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at ſome periods, have diſcovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have ſeemed fitted only for ſlavery; and when they were labouring to render themſelves free, they have wanted that ſound political knowlege, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for ſecuring their future freedom. The moſt capital defect of the Swediſh conſtitution was the total want of all balance of its parts: and the diviſion of the Swediſh nation into three diſtinct claſſes of nobles, burghers, and peaſants, whoſe intereſts were perpetually claſhing, has been a circumſtance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much reſtrained; but no ſufficient regulations were adopted for ſecuring the perſonal freedom of the ſubject. Theſe defects in the Swediſh conſtitution paved the way for the late revolution: but it is notwithſtanding a juſt ſubject of ſurpriſe, that a bold and hardy people, who had ſo cautiouſly limited the power of their prince, ſhould at once without a ſtruggle, ſuffer him to proceed to ſo great an extenſion of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Guſtavus the Third hath thus aſſumed, he has hitherto, ſince the revolution, exerciſed with ſome degree of moderation.

Guſtavus of Holſtein-Gottorp, king of Sweden, was born in 1746, and ſucceeded his father in 1771. He was married in 1766, to Sophia Magdelena, the princeſs-royal of Denmark, by whom he has iſſue a prince, Guſtavus Adolphus, born November 1, 1778. His brothers and ſiſter are, 1. Charles, born in 1748. 2. Frederic Adolphus, born in 1750. 3. Sophia Albertina, born in 1753.

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# MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

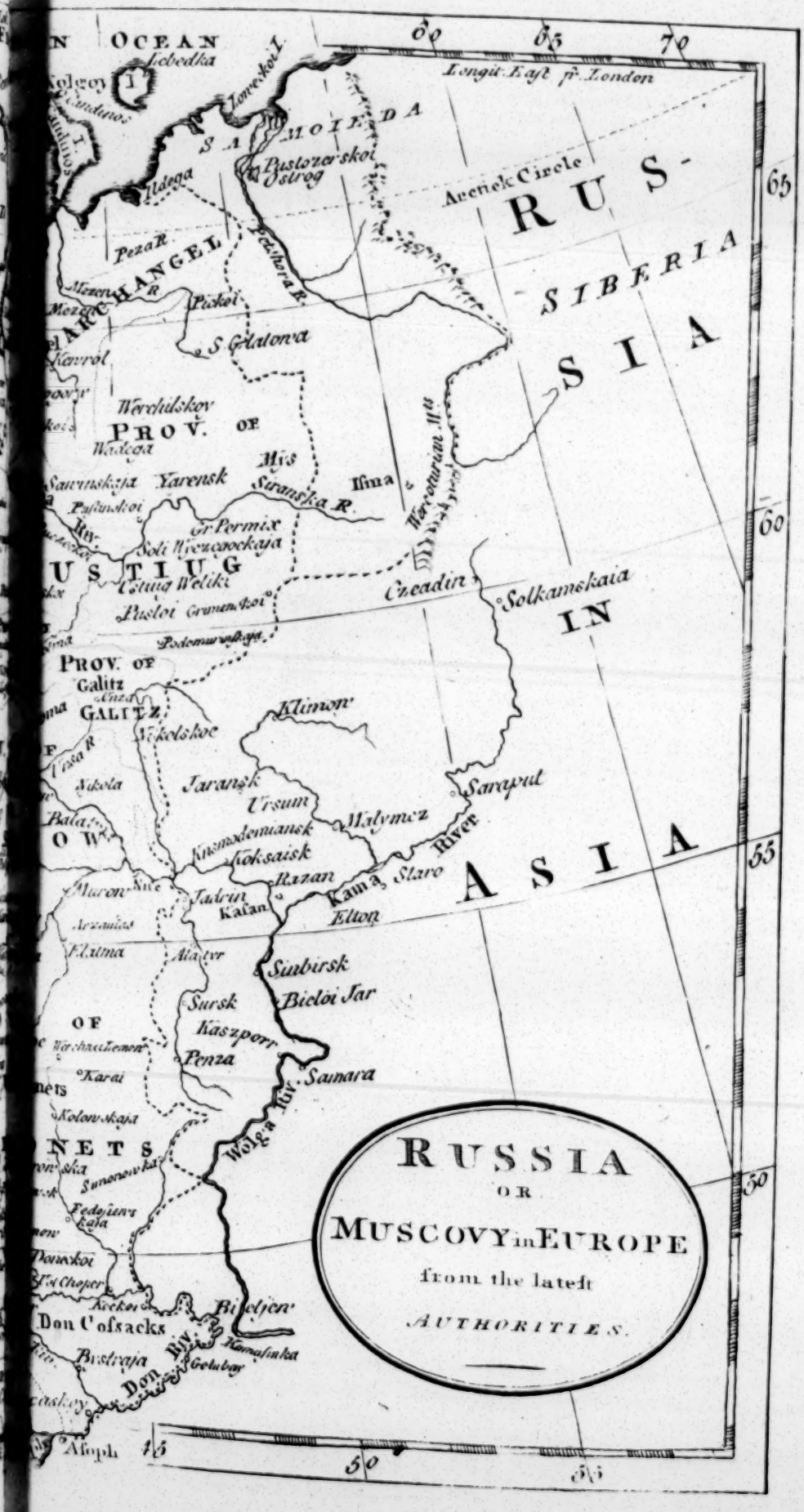
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1500 | between | 23 and 65 East longitude. |
| Breadth | 1100 | | 47 and 72 North latitude. |

DIVISIONS AND NAME. ACCORDING to the moſt authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it conſiſts of fifteen (Mr. Voltaire ſays ſixteen) provinces, or governments: beſides part of Carelia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherſoneſus, a peninſula in the Euxine ſea, ſubject to the Turks formerly, but added in the year 1783 to the Ruſſian empire, with the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban *; alſo the duchy of Courland in Poland, of which the empreſs of Ruſſia has has now the entire diſpoſal.

* The Ruſſians are ſuppoſed to have gained above a million of ſubjects by this ceſſion.

The


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30
Enaraby
Kola
KOLA
Lulea Lake
Lulea R.
Lulea
Pitea
Umea
Torneo
Kimi
Ulea
Ulea L.
Caiana
BOTHNIA
SWEDEN
Laktea
Wasa
GULF
FINLAND
Abo
Stockholm
PROV. OF
CARELIA
Wyburg
Ladoga L.
FINLAND
GULF OF
I. Dagho
Reval
Narva
INGRIA
ESTHONIA
Gothland I.
Oeland I.
BALTIC SEA
Pernau
Wolmar
LIVONIA
Pepus L.
Kobela
Pesker
Ilmen L.
Staraya
GOV. OF
NOVOGOROD
Riga
Mitau
COURLAND
Braslaw
Dwina R.
Niemen
Konigsburg
PRUSSIA
POLAND
Wilpsk
Riv. LITHUANIA
Molegen
Mseislaw
PROV. OF
Smolensko
SMOLENSKO
Wiazma
Moscow
Tver
Wolodimer
Pereslaw
Jaroslaw
Rostow
Briansk
GOV. OF
Trubetzk
Pripec R.
Czernigof
Kalpinka
Trabesewsk
Sursk
Kursk
Kiow
Uk Cossacks
Starai Oskol
Belgorod
GOV. OF
BELGOROD
Brasnopolie
Sudza R.
Oluwa
Woronetz
Pultowa
Pereyaslaw
Pultowa
Budziac Tartary
Little Tartary
Oczakow
Precop
Russian Wersts
125
325
525


RUSSIA
OR
MUSCOVY in EUROPE
from the lateſt
AUTHORITIES.
RUS-
SIA
ASIA
EUROPEAN
ASIA
Longit. East fr. London
Arctick Circle
Lapland
Archangel
Prov. of
Galitz
Permia
Siberia
Caspian Sea
Volga R.
Don R.
Kama R.
Petchora R.
Dwina R.
Obi R.
Irtis R.
Ural Mts
Petersburg
Moscow
Archangel
Kola
Pustozerskoi Ostrog
Ladoga
Onega
Lake Onega
Wologda
Yarensk
Permix
Solikamskaia
Cheadin
Klimon
Jaransk
Ursum
Malymez
Saratof
Kokſaisk
Razan
Kasan
Elton
Simbirsk
Bielöi Jar
Sursk
Kaszperr
Penza
Samara
Astrachan
Bielgen
Don Cosacks
Azoph
Ocean
60
65
70
55
50
45

The following table will give ſome idea of the Ruſſian empire, properly ſo called, or Ruſſia in Europe, with its acquiſitions from Sweden in the preſent century. And alſo of the Ruſſian empire in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, for we muſt alſo include all the acquiſitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia: the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the weſt, to Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Ocean; and on the north, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-ſeventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and other unknown regions in Aſia.

The country now comprized under the name of Ruſſia or the Ruſſias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the reſt of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be ſeen by turning to the table, page 23, to which we may add the authority of Voltaire.

| Ruſſian Empire in Europe. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Greek Church. | Ruſ. or Muſc. | 784,650 | 1160 | 1050 | Moſcow. |
| | Belgrod, | 72,900 | 375 | 285 | Waronetz. |
| | Don Coſſacs, | 57,000 | 400 | 280 | Panchina. |
| | Uk. Coſſacs, | 45,000 | 330 | 205 | Kiow. |
| | Lapland, | 72,000 | 405 | 270 | Kola. |
| Conquered from Sweden ſince 1700. | Ruſ. Finland, | 41,310 | 320 | 180 | Wyburg. |
| | Livonia, | 21,525 | 218 | 145 | Riga. |
| | Ingria, | 9,100 | 175 | 90 | PETERSBURG { N. Lat. 60. E. L. 30-25 |
| Seized from the Turks in 1783. | Crim. Tart. | 8,200 | 160 | 15 | Kaffa. |
| Ruſſian Emp. in Aſia. | | | | | |
| Chriſtians and Idolaters | Muſcovy Tartary & Siberia, | 2,000,000 | 3150 | 1500 | Tobolſky. |
| | Kalm. Tart. | 850,000 | 2100 | 750 | Aſtrachan. |
| | Total | 4,161,685 | | | |

Ruſſia has been alſo ſubdivided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.
1. Lapland,
2. Samoida,
3. Ballamorenſkey,
4. Meſeen,
5. Dwina,
6. Syrianes,
7. Permia,
8. Rubeninſki,
9. Belaeſeda.

Middle Provinces.
10. Rezan, or Pereſlaf,
11. Belozero,
12. Wologda,
13. Jeraſlaf,
14. Tweer,
15. Moſcow,
16. Belgorod.

Eaſtern Provinces.
17. Bulgar,
18. Kaſan,
19. Tſcheremiſſi,
20. Little Novogrod,
21. Don Coſſacs.

Weſtern Provinces.
22. Great Novogrod,
23. Ruſſian Finland,
24. Kexholm,
25. Kaleria,
26. Ingria.

Southern Provinces.
27. Livonia,
28. Smolenſko,
29. Zernigof,
30. Seefſk,
31. Ukraine, or country of the Old Coſſacs.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Peterſburgh, who has lately publiſhed an account of Ruſſia, has enumerated the following nations as comprehended in this great empire:

The Mongouls,
The Kalmucs,
The Tartars,
The Samoides,
The Oſtiacs,
The Burattians,
The Jakutans,
The Tunguſians,
The Voguls,
The Laplanders,
The Finns,
The Lettonians,
The Eſthonians,
The Lieffs,
The Ingrians,
The Tſcheremiſſes,
The Tſcouwaſches,
The Mordvines,
The Votiaks,
The Terptyaireis,
The Tartars of Kaſan and Orenburg,
The Tartars of Tobolſk,
The Tartars of Tomſk,
The Nogayan Tartars,
The Tartars of the Ob,
The Tſchoulym Tartars,
The Katſchintz Tartars,
The Teleutes,
The Abinzes,
The Biryouſſes,
The Kurilians,
The Kiſtim and Toulibert Tartars,
The Vergo Tomſkoi Tartars,
The Sayan Tartars,
The Touralinzes,
The Tougharians,
The Baſchkirians,
The Meſtſcheraiks,
The Barabinzes,
The Kirkguiſians,
The Beltirians,
The Yakoutes,
The Kamtſchadales,

and various others; but ſome of which muſt be conſidered rather as diſtinct tribes, than as diſtinct nations.

As to the names of Ruſſia and Muſcovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built; but of this we know nothing certain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity of ſoil as well as climate, and the extremes of both are ſeen and felt in this vaſt empire.

The ſeverity of the climate, however, in Ruſſia properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburgh, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point: tho' commonly, in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. The ſame writer remarks, that it is almoſt difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo great: but it may help to give ſome notion of it to inform the reader, that when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. But, even in that ſtate, the beard is found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face, which are expoſed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it firſt by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him

him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual way to thaw it. It is alſo remarked, that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong ale has alſo been frozen in an hour and a half: but in this ſubſtance there was about a tea cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy or ſpirits of wine. But notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſuch various means and proviſions to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs from it than might be expected. The houſes of perſons of tolerable circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and within, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues, and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. Theſe ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might be imagined, and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary people to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; they then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpecially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible: in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and commonly have double glaſs frames. In ſhort, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable, that the wind is ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage, which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is, the preſerving proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires: by which means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburgh, is eſteemed the fineſt they have; nor can it be diſtinguiſhed from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburgh are by this means ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is not a little curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia, is by immerging them in cold water: for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction: but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round

it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture: and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors, down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia, as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The vaſt communication, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerve to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Ruſſia is in general a flat, level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending to the ſea of Oral. And here we may obſerve, that from Peterſburgh to Pekin, one ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterſburgh to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburgh, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea: it is not only reckoned the largeſt, but one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe: it produces all kinds of fiſh, and fertilizes all the lands on each ſide with the richeſt trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long courſe there is not a ſingle cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, multiplies its quantities of iſles, as it divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: and all theſe arms divide themſelves into others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again, ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this

noble

noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caſpian ſea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia; and in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourn, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance. To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itſelf at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiaga, and dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

As to foreſts, they abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſart; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, and INSECTS. } Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces, to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can maſter; and is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia, that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, only the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and beluga: the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the beluga, the Ruſſians make the famous cavear ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-ſtones, which is concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior parts of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. The inſtant it is taken from the fiſh, it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg, ſhape ſometimes oval and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallus to belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this vaſt empire; the whole of which, they think,

does

does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurpriſing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the immenſe armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the firſt author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this reſpect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation or poll-tax, and which amount to ſix millions ſix hundred and forty-ſix thouſand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making of one regiſter of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to be taxed, including women and girls, we ſhall find near twenty millions of ſouls. To this account may be added three hundred and fifty thouſand ſoldiers, and two hundred thouſand nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewiſe exempted from the poll-tax; as alſo (ſays Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Caretia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Coſſacs, the Kalmucs, and other Tartars; the Samoides, the Laplanders, the Oſtiacs, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this liſt. The new regiſter in 1764 contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer reſident ſome time in Ruſſia gives the following eſtimate:

| | |
|---|---|
| Lower claſs of people paying capitation tax, | 18,000,000 |
| Conquered provinces, — — — | 1,200,000 |
| Noble families, — — — | 60,000 |
| Clergy, — — — — | 100,000 |
| Military, — — — — | 360,000 |
| Civil, — — — — | 30,000 |
| Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacs, &c. — — | 350,000 |
| | 20,100,000 |

To theſe muſt now be added near a million more by the acquiſitions of the Crimea, and part of Cuban Tartary.

As her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries from whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that her dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; twenty-four millions, are but a thin population for the immenſe tract of country ſhe poſſeſſes. As the like decreaſe of inhabitants is obſervable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reaſon in natural cauſes, which we cannot diſcuſs here. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſeaſe may have aſſiſted in the depopulation; and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their

eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks they greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; they endure extreme hardſhips with great patience; and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs; no leſs than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity preſented themſelves upon the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was by far the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays, that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements, in learning and the arts, which he made, ſhall be mentioned elſewhere. The Ruſſians, before his days, had hardly a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no conveniences for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent, a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia, as in moſt other parts of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient uſages remain. It is, however, to be obſerved, that notwithſtanding the ſeverities of Peter, and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks; nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families, as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is examined ſtark naked by a certain number

number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defects they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even among the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage contract.

FUNERALS.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for his ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpſe, the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication; which laſts, among the better ſort, with few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his deſtination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay thouſands, at a time. The ſingle and double knout were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by ſtriking him upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the late empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia, except in the caſe of high treaſon: but when this matter is thoroughly inveſtigated, there is much leſs humanity in it than has been ſuppoſed. For there are many felons who die under the knout, and others die of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines; ſo that there is reaſon to believe, that no fewer

criminals

criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries wherein capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Cronſtadt, Viſhnei Voloſhok, and other places: but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themſelves and families.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes, either a reader or a ſtranger, more than the facility with which the Ruſſians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, already deſcribed, they travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way towards February, become ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburgh and Moſcow, in three days and nights. Her imperial majeſty, in her journies, is drawn in a houſe which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf is fixed on a ſledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.] As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but now they make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tſcheremiſes and Mordvars, a peaceable induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kaſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the reſt of the tract to Aſtrachan and the frontiers of the Uſbecs; and in conſideration of certain preſents they receive from her imperial majeſty, they ſerve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Coſſacs*, who lately made a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe, were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukraine as a militia againſt the Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in aſhes. They next put themſelves under the protection of the Ruſſians, built Circaſka, on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions, which conſiſted

fisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects of the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation choose a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as a superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Cossacs of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought over, however, some of the Zaporovian Cossacs, who were settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kasan, and of those derived from them, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well-made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion, rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kasan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster; though some of these priests and school-masters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Tobolsk, and Astrachan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors; and their merchants, besides what these little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, with the antiquities of each. Such as chose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kasan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen

ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterpriſing; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs, which their parſimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kaſan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Theſe villages were at firſt compoſed of troops of wandering ſhepherds; but being drawn gradually cloſer together by ſucceſſive population, they found themſelves under the neceſſity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow; for which reaſon they uſe more manure than the Ruſſians. They are much attached to the cultivation of bees; many of them are perfect maſters of this part of rural œconomy, and reap great profit from it. Moſt of the villages alſo contain tanners, ſhoe-makers, taylors, dyers, ſmiths, and carpenters. The laborious females ſpin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation. Old men, who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them, and a grey beard is conſidered as naturally intitling a man to reſpect. They are fond of aſking advice of their old men, who have always preference and precedence, and are the arbitrators in all diſputes.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villagers of Aſtrachan are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſan. In the city of Aſtrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, and Bougharians; and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* are of Aſiatic origin, and have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilized, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and make ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the Chriſtian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exerciſe moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viatk, in the government of Kaſan. This nation was one of thoſe who were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but, ſince it has been ſubjected to Ruſſia, it has preferred the quiet and ſecurity which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdſmen and ſhepherds, and fixed habitations to their ancient tents. Some of the Votiaks are Chriſtians, but a great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, who are likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their deſcendants are ſtill reputed noble. As theſe people divide themſelves into different ſtocks or tribes, they chuſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters

letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the caſe with other Finniſh nations.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. They are of a gay diſpoſition, honeſt, laborious and acute; but ſlovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely paſſionate. Their women are well made, robuſt, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the uſe of letters as well as ſome of their kindred nations: they do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature which they obſerve in their foreſt. They diſtinguiſh themſelves into tribes or races; and a Vogoul village is commonly compoſed only of one family, whoſe chief or elder performs the functions of ſtaroſte, or magiſtrate of the village. Their principal occupation is the chace, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouzvaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the governments of Niſchnei-Novogorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe ſcrew-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "Among the "Tſchouwaſches the huſband is maſter of the houſe; he orders every "thing himſelf; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply; "a cuſtom calculated to prevent domeſtic broils. Accordingly quarrels "are very uncommon in the families of the Tſchouwaſches."

The *Kirguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characteriſes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp, but not a fierce look, and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, and are affable, and high-ſpirited; but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deſarts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds, which conſtitute their principal occupation. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they having generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to exceſs. Men, women, and children all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are diſtinguiſhed only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which ſurround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children and ſlaves.

The *Tunguſians* form one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle ſtature, well made, and of a good mien. Their ſight and hearing are of a degree of acuteneſs and delicacy that is almoſt incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are conſiderably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree and ſtone within the circuit of their uſual perambulations; and they can even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take the ſame route by ſuch deſcriptions. They alſo diſcover the tracts of the game by the compreſſion of the graſs or moſs. They alſo learn foreign languages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

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The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the moſt part raw-boned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat that the ſkull of a Kalmuc may eaſily be known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſe, and a ſhort chin, the complexion a reddiſh and yelloviſh brown. The women are of the ſame ſhape and make with the men, and the ſkin of their face a wholeſome white and red; they are lively, agreeable, and induſtrious. The ſtanding character of this tribe is, rough, but leſs diſſolute and baſe than they are commonly ſuppoſed to be. They are much attached to their chiefs or maſters, but their active ſpirit, and their improvidence and careleſſneſs, make them thieviſh and dirty. In their robberies, they uſe more ſtratagem than violence, and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's ſpirits, they are ſeldom accompanied with murder. They are ſuperſtitious about good and bad days, and have written laws which are founded on reaſon, cuſtom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. A rape and adultery is puniſhed with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their ſpeech is a mongrel dialect with many Tartarian words, but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The ſole profeſſion among them is the breeding of cattle; they purſue the chace as an amuſement; their dwelling is in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Ruſſians *kibitka*, and much reſemble the Kirguiſians. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chineſe. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of diſtemper or age, and let it ſtink ever ſo much; ſo that in every hord the fleſh-market hath the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion; they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſarts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both ſexes ſmoke continually: during the ſummer they keep to the north, and in the winter to the ſouthern deſarts. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The *Kamtſchadales* have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing. The chace furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper ſeaſons for it. Their nets are made of the ſtamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fiſhing, they ſometimes employ themſelves in building huts, forming different wooden utenſils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: but much of their time is paſſed in abſolute idleneſs; for they are naturally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chace. They live in villages, conſiſting of a few ſmall houſes, and ſituated in general near ſome river. When a village becomes too populous, they ſeparate and form a new village. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domeſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs, and all, coſts in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Chriſtian religion. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance; and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this wide and forlorn region, that was ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, and which is ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expence. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia, and here ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here. It is ſufficient to ſay, that they deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly: an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for the ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and Trinity. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church; and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty: and no female a nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta: the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts however, and the moſt learned clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity, are at no loſs for underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Ruſſians, hitherto, have made but an inconſiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encou-

encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal, at the late opening of the commmiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed both at Peterſburg and Moſcow, is an evidence, that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſciences. However, the efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day-break, was ſeen under Czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz: but under Peter it burſt forth with the ſplendour of a riſing ſun, and hath continued ever ſince to aſcend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries: who furniſh medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city. The preſent empreſs has alſo founded an univerſity at Peterſburg, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a military academy, where the young nobility and officers ſons are taught the art of war.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. Peterſburg naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of a few ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo wateriſh and ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into too minute a deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it extends about ſix miles every way; and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deſerves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empreſs's expence; 200 of them of ſuperior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradeſmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements ſuitable to their conditions of life, and thoſe of the lower claſs are preſented with a ſum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themſelves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a Foundling Hoſpital, aſſiſtant to that noble one eſtabliſhed at Moſcow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then, after the utmoſt at-

tention to her, ſhe leaves the child to the ſtate, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterſburgh is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer-time is ſurpriſing. In winter, 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It is ſuppoſed, that there are 400,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almoſt every ſect of the Chriſtian religion is tolerated. It alſo contains five palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that ſide next the ſea by the fortreſs of Cronſtadt; which, conſidering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is ſufficient to guard it on that ſide from the attempts of any enemy. Peterſburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country-houſes and gardens.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes it name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very picturesque appearance: for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Buſching gives us any ſatisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profeſſion. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or ſquares. Buſching makes the merchant's exchange to contain about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city diſplays a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it ſtands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleaſure-houſe, and ſtables, a victualling houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Krimlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt, or covered with ſilver: the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with forty-eight lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would

ſcarcely ſuffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its ſumptuous monuments of the great-dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The public is not unacquainted with the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Baſilides ordered the architect of the church of Jeruſalem to be deprived of his eye-ſight, that he might never contrive its equal. The ſtory is improbable, and might take its riſe from the arbitrary diſpoſition of that great prince. I ſhall have occaſion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moſcow; where the inhabitants are ſo diſtractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Krimlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is ſeen at the famous Holy Houſe of Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow at the time he was building Peterſburg; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling hoſpital at Moſcow is an excellent inſtitution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the preſent empreſs, and is ſupported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when the eſtabliſhment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen, they have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves: a ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling for that purpoſe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a very conſiderable privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was the Engliſh ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes were computed at 40,000. Voltaire ſays, that when he wrote, Moſcow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almoſt impoſſible to make an eſtimate of its preſent population.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly her canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old ſepulchres of an unknown nation, whoſe inſtruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Peterſburg, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his ſkin, and the hair upon it, perfect. I have already hinted at the paſſion the Ruſſians have for bell-ringing; and we are told, that the great bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs 443,772 pounds weight. It is 19 feet high, and 23 in diameter; and was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne; but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. Mr. Bruce, in his late Memoirs mentions a bell at Moſcow founded in Czar Boris's time, 19 feet high,

23 in diameter, 64 in circumference, and two in thickneſs, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Peterſburg, and raiſing it of a ſudden from a few fiſhing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburg, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city, employed, for ſome years, 300,000 men in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE AND MARITIME FORCE. In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice at this time, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to four millions of rubles; and her imports do not exceed three millions; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly 225,000l. ſterling in her favour.

Ruſſia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, ſail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, iſing-glaſs, linſeed-oil, pot-aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hogs briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs, timber, and alſo raw ſilk from China and Perſia.

Her foreign commerce is much increaſed ſince her conqueſts from Sweden, eſpecially of Livonia and Ingria; and ſince the eſtabliſhing of her new emporium of Peterſburg; whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is made much more ſhort and eaſy. The Ukraine may be called the granaries of the empire; the beſt corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually ſent from its paſtures into Sileſia and Saxony.

Ruſſia carries on a commerce over-land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, ſilk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia near the river Oxus in Tartary, Ruſſia ſends her own merchandiſe, in return for Indian ſilks, curled lamb-ſkins, and ready money; and alſo from the annual fair at Samarcand; ſhe likewiſe trades to Perſia by Aſtrachan, croſs the Caſpian ſea, for raw and wrought ſilk. The empreſs, this year 1784, iſſued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by ſea and land with the ſeveral countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The ſame privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherſon, Sebaſtiopolis, and Theodoſia (formerly Caffa), in the province of Taurica, as in Peterſburg.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Ruſſia had with the reſt of Europe; but it was ſubject to a long and tempeſtuous voyage. They have now 13 ports, Archangel, Peterſburg, Riga, Revel, Perneau, Narva, Wibourg, Frederickſham, Aſtrachan, and Kola; and the three opened in their new conqueſts. This town is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth: built all of wood, excepting

cepting the exchange, which is of ſtone. Notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the trade of Archangel, by building Peterſburg, it ſtill exports a conſiderable quantity of merchandiſe. Their maſts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the foreſts of Kaſan, that border on the province of Aſtrachan.

The preſent ſtate of their navy, according to a late liſt is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 101 galleys, 10 proams from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, ſeven pinks, &c.; 15,000 ſailors are kept in conſtant pay and ſervice, either on board the ſhips, or in the dock-yards. The harbour is at Cronſtadt, ſeven leagues from Peterſburg, defended on one ſide by a fort of four baſtions, and on the other, by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large baſon will contain near 600 ſail of ſhips.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTION OF RANK. } The ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire is abſolute and deſpotic in the fulleſt extent of thoſe terms, and maſter of the lives and properties of all his ſubjects; who, though they are of the firſt nobility, or have been highly inſtrumental in promoting the welfare of the ſtate, may notwithſtanding, for the moſt trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be ſeized upon and ſent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiſcated, whenever the ſovereign or his miniſters ſhall think proper. Perſons of any rank may be baniſhed into Siberia for the ſlighteſt political intrigue, and their poſſeſſions being confiſcated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the inſinuations of an artful courtier. The ſecret court of chancery, which is a tribunal compoſed of a few miniſters choſen by the ſovereign, leaves the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. Even the nobility of Ruſſia, being thus brought under the yoke of the moſt dreadful ſlavery, do not fail to retaliate upon the people, who are ſlaves to the nobles as well as to the ſovereign.

The ſyſtem of civil laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia is very imperfect, and in many inſtances barbarous and unjuſt; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from moſt of the ſtates of Europe, ill digeſted, and in many reſpects not at all adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. But the preſent empreſs has made ſome attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of juſtice here were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the empreſs hath lately made ſome judicious regulations, and fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws for which ſhe hath given inſtructions, will ſoon be produced, to increaſe the people's liberty, ſecurity, and felicity.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratix; which implies, that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the preſent and late empreſſes have introduced among their ſubjects the titles

of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her preſent imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually. Thus computed:

| | Rubles. |
|---|---|
| Capitation tax, - - - | 8,500,000 |
| Other taxes and duties, - - | 7,000,000 |
| Her own eſtates, with other dominions taken from the clergy, | 6,000,000 |
| Produce of the mines, - - | 1,500,000 |
| Monopoly of diſtilled liquors, - | 4,000,000 |
| Monopoly of ſalt, - - - | 1,800,000 |
| | 28,800,000 |

The deficiency of the ſum total may be eaſily made up by the profit ariſing from ſtamp-paper, patents, poſt-office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, beſides *one* per cent. every Ruſſian merchant is obliged to pay on his yearly capital.

When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total amounted to thirteen millions of Rubles (each ruble amounting to about 4s. 6d. ſterling.) This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and ſea ſervice. The other expences beſides the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, is very conſiderable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſt her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expences of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies; which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expence; and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to 50 ſhillings yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found in proviſions when a-ſhore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew* inſtituted by Peter the Great in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers, in the wars againſt the Turks. He choſe St. Andrew for his patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of Chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The badge is the image of St. Andrew on the croſs enamelled on an imperial eagle. On days of ceremony it is worn pendant to a collar of gold, the eagle ducally crowned, and over both heads an imperial crown, in the right claw a ſceptre, and in the left a mound, upon the breaſt a ſhield charged with St. George ſlaying the Dragon. The order of St. *Alexander Newſki*, was alſo inſtituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empreſs Catherine I. in the year 1725: the enſign of the order is a croſs pattee enamelled red, and edged with gold, the centre enamelled white, and thereon St. Alexander on horſeback; all proper, in each angle an imperial eagle, the croſs ſurmounted with an imperial crown proper. The order of St. *Catherine* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empreſs for her aſſiſtance on the Banks of the Pruth. He declared her ſovereign of it, and though both ſexes were firſt admitted, yet it is now appropriated to the fair alone, and perſons of the firſt diſtinction of Europe: the badge is a medallion enriched with diamonds, and charged with the image of St. Catherine, pendant to a broad white ribband worn faſhwiſe over the right ſhoulder: on the left ſide of the ſtomacher is embroidered a ſilver ſtar of three points, on the centre of which is a croſs. The order of St. *George* inſtituted by the preſent empreſs Catherine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The badge is a golden croſs enamelled white, on the centre of which is a medallion with the figure of St. George killing the Dragon: this is worn pendant to a black riband ſtriped and edged with yellow, the order is divided into four claſſes. The order of St. *Woledemir* was inſtituted about October 3d, 1782, by the empreſs in favour of thoſe who ſerve her in a civil capacity, and nearly on the ſame footing with the order of St. George: there are ten great croſſes of it, twenty of the ſecond claſs, thirty of the third, and ſixty of the fourth, beſides a fifth claſs for thoſe who have ſerved in a civil employment 35 years, which entitles them to wear it.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital under Jenghis Kan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in hiſtory; and nothing is more certain, than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire, reach no higher than the 9th century, but they have vended a tradition, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430.

This

This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman, who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand-duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century; when the princeſs of this country, called Olha, is ſaid to have been baptiſed at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptize the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Baſilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is ſaid to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and ſilver.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtrachan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar, was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns, but it ſeems to have been of Perſian or Aſiatic original; becauſe, at firſt, it was applied only to Kaſan, Aſtrachan, and the Aſian Siberia. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled up by a ſet of weak cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whoſe information I prefer, as it ſeems to be the moſt authentic, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers; and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him), he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him, and he was murdered. Three other falſe Demetrius's ſtarted up one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. Their country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon to Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended of the ancient ſove-

reigns of Ruſſia had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Ruſſian tyrants; and there was detained priſoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon, Michael Fædorowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia; and being created patriarch by his ſon, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claims of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of a breathing-time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England ſent, at his invitation, ſir John Meyrick, as his ambaſſador to Ruſſia, upon ſome commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain ſum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predeceſſors. The Engliſh court, however, was ſo ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Ruſſian company had been eſtabliſhed at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of great-duke, and lord of Ruſſia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which ſhews him to have been not only well acquainted with the intereſts of his own ſubjects, but the laws and uſages of nations. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wiſdom and the mildneſs of his character, he reſtored eaſe and tranquillity to his ſubjects. He encouraged them to induſtry, and gave them the example of very commendable behaviour in his own perſon. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen; and he was plowing his own farm when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymitar was as good as the grand ſignior's ſabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and ſciences, of which he was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſtill uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly improved his army by mending its diſcipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of ſtrangers, moſt of whom were Scotch. He cultivated a polite correſpondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered

ordered his ambaſſadors not to kiſs the pope's toe. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtrachan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions: and inſtead of putting to death, or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius in 1667. He was of a gentle diſpoſition, and weak conſtitution; fond of pomp and magnificence; and in gratifying this propenſity contributed to poliſh his ſubjects, by the introduction of foreign manufactures, and articles of elegance, which they ſoon began to adopt and imitate. He delighted much in horſes, and he rendered a real ſervice to his country, in the beginning and eſtabliſhing very fine breeds of them in the Ukraine, and elſewhere. He reigned ſeven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars round him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who was his half-brother, he ſaid to them, "Hear my laſt ſentiments; they are dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan neceſſarily muſt affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling a dominion like that of Ruſſia; he cannot take it amiſs, if I recommend to you to ſet him aſide, and let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robuſt conſtitution joins great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." But this wiſe deſtination extremely offended the princeſs Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exerciſed the government herſelf, with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given by Voltaire, of her barbarous adminiſtration, are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter their aſſociate co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter was now about 17 years of age, and aſſerted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow; and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared, but his great eſtate was confiſcated; and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment, "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee three pence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and eaſy Iwan, and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly

cruelly provided for his own future ſecurity, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

It far exceeds the bounds preſcribed to this work, to give even a ſummary detail of this great prince's actions. They may be collected from the hiſtories of the northern nations, Poland, Germany, and other countries; ſome of which I have already exhibited, as I intend to do the reſt. All therefore that is neceſſary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vaſt reformation he introduced into his dominions.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with Germans and Dutch; with the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſes of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own ambaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia; and at laſt he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially that from Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage: and the generous friendſhip he ſhewed to Auguſtus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank, diſtinct from merit; and he at laſt married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after a long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans, and to aſſiſt his councils. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity, as already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences: and, upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his ſubjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who was called the czarowitz, and who, marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alleged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, we can ſay nothing as to the juſtice of the charge.

charge. It was undoubtedly his will, that the young prince ſhould be found guilty; and the very reading of the ſentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is ſaid, that as ſoon as the ſentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, wherein were the following words, "The di-"vine, eccleſiaſtical, civil, and military laws condemn to death, with-"out mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts againſt their father and their ſo-"vereign are manifeſt," he fell into the moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with the greateſt difficulty that he regained a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father would come to ſee him, when he aſked his pardon, and ſoon after died. After this event, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and to be recognized as his ſucceſſor; which ſhe accordingly was, and mounted the Ruſſian throne upon the deceaſe of her huſband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. Peter died of the ſmall-pox, in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to his eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians for political reaſons filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother; though her eldeſt ſiſter the ducheſs of Mecklenburgh was alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous; and though ſhe accepted of the crown under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her dignity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dolgorucki family, who had impoſed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, was by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburgh to arreſt Biron; who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her huſband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catherine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, her huſband, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments;

niſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed the counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and ſettled, as we have already ſeen, the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equitable foundation. Having glorioufly finiſhed a war, which had been ſtirred up againſt her, with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe called him to her court; where he renounced the ſucceſſion of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who is now heir to the Ruſſian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large ſubſidy; but many political, and ſome private reaſons, it is ſaid, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the ſucceſs of the war, which was in diſfavour of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſts were ſuch, as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was, perhaps, ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand-prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein: a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects even of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia; but it is ſaid, that he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alſo alleged, that he had formed a reſolution to deſtroy both his empreſs and her ſon, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the ſame authority which had placed the crown upon his head: and even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge, that he had reſolved to ſhut up his wife and ſon in a convent, to place his miſtreſs upon the throne, and to change the order of ſucceſſion. However, the execution of his deſigns was prevented by an almoſt general conſpiracy being formed againſt him, in which the empreſs took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. That his conduct with regard to Pruſſia was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems pretty evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catharine II. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trod in her huſband's ſteps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh.

This young prince, as ſoon as he came into the world was deſigned, though unjuſtly and illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruſſia, after

ter the death of his great aunt, the empreſs Anna Iwanowna; but by the advancement of the empreſs Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obſcure life in the caſtle of Schluſſelbourg under a ſtrong guard, who had particular orders, that if any perſon, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they ſhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his priſon when the empreſs Catherine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depoſed her huſband Peter III. had occaſioned a ſtrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catherine was apprehenſive that ſome attempts might be made in favour of Iwan: ſhe therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entruſted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Iwan by force of arms, from the fortreſs of Schluſſelbourg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arreſted, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithſtanding this, it has been repreſented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he ſuffered for executing the inſtructions that he had received.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Ruſſia, the empreſs Catherine ſent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majeſty's armies gave to the Roman Catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia with regard to Poland, gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the Grand Signior ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the Seven Towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March 1769, Crim Gueray, Khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 Spahis, having broken the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following, the Grand Vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time prince Gallitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the banks of the Neiſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. Having accordingly croſſed the Neiſter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince having made the neceſſary diſpoſitions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack

attack the right wing of the Ruſſian army; but they had ſuch a warm reception from the artillery, that they ſoon retired in great diſorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to purſue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did ſo effectually, that they followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and their purſuit was at length only ſtopped by the paliſadoes of the fortreſs. Soon after, the town was ſet on fire by red hot balls, and a great number of Jews and Chriſtians took refuge in the Ruſſian camp. From theſe ſucceſſes of the Ruſſians, it might have been expected that Choczim would have immediately fallen into their hands. But this was not the caſe; for prince Gallitzin thought proper to retire from Choczim, and to repaſs the Neiſter. The reaſons aſſigned for this conduct were, that Choczim was garriſoned by 18,000 men, well provided with artillery; that ſeveral great bodies of Turkiſh troops appeared in the neighbourhood; that the country was ſo waſted, the army could not be ſupplied with proviſions; and that prince Gallitzin, not having ſufficient artillery along with him, choſe for the preſent to ſuſpend his deſign of beſieging the place. Indeed it appears that the Turkiſh cavalry had over-run the neighbouring country, burnt ſome ſmall towns, and deſtroyed ſome Ruſſian magazines.

While the Ruſſians and Turks were attacking each other in different places of their dominions on the ſide of Europe, the Tartar Aſiatic nations in their different intereſts, extended the rage of war into another quarter of the globe. On the 9th of May, a bloody engagement was fought between the Kalmucs, and thoſe Tartars that inhabit the banks of the Cuban, lying between the Black and the Caſpian ſeas. This engagement continued from two in the afternoon till ſun-ſet; when the Kalmucs, by the aſſiſtance of ſome Ruſſian officers, with a detachment of dragoons and Coſſacs, and two pieces of cannon, obtained a complete victory, having made a great ſlaughter, as the Kalmucs gave no quarter. On the other hand, the European Tartars penetrated into the Ruſſian Ukraine on the ſide of Backmuth, where they made great devaſtations in the country.

On the 12th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought between a conſiderable Turkiſh army, and the Ruſſians under prince Gallitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim; but the garriſon being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand vizir's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued, and prince Gallitzin was at length obliged to retreat from Choczim, and again to repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which it has been thought would have proved fatal to the deſigns of the Ruſſians, if the ſame conduct had been afterwards purſued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries; ſo that, in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of the councils that prevailed in the ſeraglio, he at length became a ſacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his ſucceſſor.

During theſe tranſactions, general Romanzow committed great devaſtations upon the Turks in the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh de-

tachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt totally deſtroyed the palatinate of Braklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army was again poſted on the banks of the Neiſter, and effectually defended the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks, whoſe whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the oppoſite ſhore. Having laid three bridges over the Neiſter, the Turkiſh army, without any pretence of ſtratagem or deception, began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Gallitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night, who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe extreme diſadvantages, the engagement was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy; but they were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repaſs the river with great loſs, and in the utmoſt diſorder and confuſion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river, before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Gallitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. It is ſaid, that the loſs of the Turks, in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed, upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this conſideration did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, eight thouſand Janizaries and four thouſand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, paſſed over with a large train of artillery, and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell of the waters of the Neiſter carried away and totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Ruſſians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued, in which the ſlaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming, was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Ruſſians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuouſly towards the Danube. They were much exaſperated at the ill-conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks loſt 28,000 of the beſt and braveſt of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and that 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Gallitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, and ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburgh, covered with laurels.

The Ruſſians continued to carry on the war with ſucceſs; they over-ran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmpt took poſſeſſion of the capital city Jaſſy, without oppoſition. And as the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity

opportunity of their ſucceſs, and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army, near the river Larga: the Turks are ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Ruſſian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above 7000 Turks were killed in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies; a vaſt quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Ruſſians.

But it was not only by land that the Ruſſians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Ruſſian-built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide. And, by means of this fleet, the Ruſſians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia. It is obſervable, that in this attempt of the Ruſſians to act as a maritime power, they were greatly aſſiſted by England; but whether in this the Engliſh government was influenced by principles of ſound policy, may very reaſonably be queſtioned.

The war between the Ruſſians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land, as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former; but at length ſome attempts were made to negociate a peace: it was, however, a long time before matters could be accommodated between theſe great contending powers; hoſtilities were repeatedly ſuſpended, and afterwards renewed; but at laſt a peace was concluded, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Ruſſians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the parts of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburgh. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kaſan, and pretended that he made his eſcape, through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is ſaid to have been a ſtriking reſemblance in his perſon to that of the late emperor, which induced him to engage in this enterprize. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, his followers being armed, and provided with artillery, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country. But being at laſt totally defeated, and taken priſoner, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded, on the 21ſt of January, 1775.

The preſent empreſs of Ruſſia, notwithſtanding the very unfavourable circumſtances which attended her taking poſſeſſion of the government of that empire, has, from the commencement of her reign, filled her high ſtation with diſtinguiſhed reputation and ability. She has encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce

of her ſubjects: though the extreme deſpotiſm of the Ruſſian government is a great impediment to the progreſs of the arts and ſciences, and to the real proſperity of the empire. Her imperial majeſty has, however, effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vaſt empire, and particularly in the courts of juſtice. One of theſe is, the abolition of the uſe of torture; and ſhe has alſo adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. The new code of laws for which ſhe hath given her inſtructions is yet wanting to give political felicity to an oppreſſed people. But one of the moſt remarkable tranſactions of her reign, is an eſtabliſhment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or inſults from belligerent powers. By the code of maritime law, which her imperial majeſty has endeavoured to enforce, neutral ſhips are to enjoy a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coaſts of belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the ſubjects of belligerent powers are looked upon to be as free, on board ſuch neutral ſhips, excepting only ſuch goods as are expreſsly ſtipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great Britain. It was in 1780, that her imperial majeſty invited the powers not at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Thoſe who engaged in it were to make a common cauſe of it at ſea, againſt any of the belligerent powers who ſhould violate, with reſpect to neutral nations, theſe principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the ſame year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States-General.

Catharine II. empreſs of all the Ruſſias, princeſs of Anhalt Zerbſt, was born in 1729, and aſcended the throne in 1762, upon the depoſition and death of her huſband. She was married to that prince whilſt duke of Holſtein Gottorp, in 1745, by whom ſhe has iſſue Paul Petrowitz, great-duke of Ruſſia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and by his preſent ducheſs, the princeſs of Wirtemberg, has had two ſons Alexander and Conſtantine, and a daughter Alexandrina Pawleona.

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# SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

## ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

I Shall, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the Iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that ancient kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, I ſhall comprehend under one head, thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of theſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives

natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent: the rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fisherman was imprisoned in May, for publishing the account of the prince and princess of Orange being raised to the throne of England the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largest of the Shetland islands, which are forty-six in number (though many of them are uninhabited), is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and it is the seat of a presbytery. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at Midsummer, and their fishing season lasts six months.

The largest of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number (though several of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in some places, nine. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The Isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and, in some places, almost as broad. It contains two parishes, and a castle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the island. The other principal western islands are, Lewis, or Harries (for they both form but one island), which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth, its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad; fruitful, and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. The isles of Ila and Jura, are part of Argyleshire, and contain together about 370 square miles, but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fishing. I shall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides islands, which are at present of small importance, either to the public, or the proprietors; though, probably, they may, in future times, be of great consequence to both, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coasts. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous isle of Iona, once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity, as shall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason, that I can discover, but because it is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are protestant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION.] It is not to be imagined, that the inhabitants of the islands belonging

belonging to Scotland can be ſo minutely deſcribed here, as they have been by ſome other authors; not ſo much on account of their importance, as their curioſity. Thoſe of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William called the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became ſubject to the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire, which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; only, perhaps, they are more honeſt and religious. Men of fortune there have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling, and other houſes, in a modern taſte; and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geeſe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norſe language, is ſtill ſpoken. Their vaſt intercourſe with the Dutch, during the fiſhing ſeaſon, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney iſlands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already deſcribed, in ſeizing the neſts of ſea-fowls, who build in the moſt frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preſerves them from any diſeaſes known to luxury. They cure the ſcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are ſubject, with the powder of ſnail-ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is proteſtant, and according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are much the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned, as to the population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now; for the Hebrides themſelves were known often to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent, their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders who ſhall hereafter be deſcribed. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the deſcendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the ancient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; but with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the ancient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory; and are the hiſtorians, or rather genealogiſts, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally

a bag-

a bagpiper, and dreſſed in the manner, but, as it is ſaid, more ſumptuouſly than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times *. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among theſe iſlanders ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connexions, which experience has ſhewn to be ſo dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders already deſcribed; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter-milk, and whey; and alſo mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to induſtry, and indeed to domeſtic and perſonal cleanlineſs. The agility of both ſexes in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of *ſecond ſight*. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the beſt information, obſerve that any two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to propheſy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that amidſt many thouſands of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, gave a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though very plauſible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but the vaſt intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whoſe language is mixed with Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the oppoſite coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient Engliſh Poetry, in 3 vols.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland, but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeem to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philoſophy to account for the reaſon, yet it is certain that the ſoil, both of the northern and weſtern iſlands belonging to Scotland, has ſuffered an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-ſight, that many of theſe iſlands have been the habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees, however, are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhews, that if the ſoil of the northern and weſtern iſlands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines; marl, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon theſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. The reader can eaſily ſuppoſe, that their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their ſheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and even the linen manufactures make no ſmall progreſs in theſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render theſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother-country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be ſaid on this head, that is peculiar to theſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious and wealthy. The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe 20 years, ſeemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. These islands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of what hath been already observed, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the Druidical temples remaining in these islands, some of which have required prodigious labour, and are stupendous erections, of the same nature as the famous Stonehenge near Salisbury. Others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone standing upright: some of them have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in these islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to describe. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stone, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill. Not to enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island, it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaëlic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the copula 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island; and which give countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland contain likewise some natural curi-

osities

oſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven as ſuppoſed, from the Weſt Indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phænomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural.

But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved even by the natives of theſe iſlands. A diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of Mr. Banks, now Sir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, ſays, "We were no ſooner arrived, than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves: upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe, above ſixty feet, in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt in the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by men? mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect: regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in her poſſeſſion; and here it has been for ages undeſcribed.—Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is paſt all deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſes, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible." Mr. Banks particulariſes ſundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks deſcribes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giant's Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till, in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers *. The mind can hardly

* The dimenſions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks:

| | Feet. |
|---|---|
| Length of the cave from the arch without | 371 |
| From the pitch of the arch | 250 |
| Breadth of ditto at the mouth | 53 |
| At the farther end | 20 |
| Height of the arch at the mouth | 117 |
| At the end | 70 |
| Height of an outſide pillar | 39 |
| Of one at the N. W. corner | 54 |
| Depth of water at the mouth | 18 |
| At the bottom | 9 |

form

form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year, had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. "On the weſt," ſays he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treaſhuniſh iſles. Neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giant's Cauſeway, riſing amidſt the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent, from the beams of the eaſtern ſun." And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward, he reſumes the ſubject. "We had in view a fine ſeries of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giant's Cauſeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and ſix angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roads entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with; the laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian: the Giant's Cauſeway appears firſt; Staffa, &c. ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, thoſe columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vaſt links of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY. See Scotland.

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# SCOTLAND.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 300 | between | 54 and 59 | North latitude. |
| Breadth | 190 | | 1 and 6 | Weſt longitude. |

NAME.] THERE can be little doubt that the Scots were not the original inhabitants of this kingdom, but of the Celtæ or Gauls, which they invaded about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Eſcoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an æra of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh ſeas, or more properly, the Atlantic ocean.

DIVISIONS

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the countries ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and 15 to the northern; and thoſe countries are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

| Shires. | | Sheriffdoms and other ſubdiviſions | | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Edinburgh | (429*) | Mid Lothian | — | Edinburgh, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith. |
| 2. Haddington | (121) | Eaſt Lothian | — | Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick. |
| 3. Merſe, anciently Berwick † | (114) | The Merches, and Lauderdale | — | Dunſe, and Lauder. |
| 4. Roxborough | (165) | Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale | | Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs. |
| 5. Selkirk | (19) | Ettrick Foreſt | — | Selkirk. |
| 6. Peebles | (42) | Tweedale | — | Peebles. |
| 7. Lanerk | (388) | Clydeſdale | — | Glaſgow, W. lon. 4-5. N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanerk, and Ruthergleu. |
| 8. Dumfries | (188) | Nithſdale, Annandale | | Dumfries, Annan. |
| 9. Wigtown | (190) | Galloway, Weſt part | | Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn. |
| 10. Kircudbright | (100) | Galloway, Eaſt part | | Kircudbright. |
| 11. Air | (280) | Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham | — | Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton and Saltcots. |
| 12. Dumbarton | (66) | Lenox | — — | Dumbarton. — |
| 13. Bute (34) and 14. Caithneſs | (105) | Bute, Arran and Caithneſs | — — | Rothſay. — — Wick, N. lat. 58-40. and Thurſo. |
| 15. Renfrew | (126) | Renfrew | — | Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock, & Port-Glaſgow. |
| 16. Stirling | (76) | Stirling | — | Stirling and Falkirk. |

* The numbers ſhew the proportion of militia as propoſed to be raiſed in each ſhire, when that ſcheme was laid before parliament in 1775.

† Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

17. Lin-

| Shires. | | Sheriffdoms and other subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 17. Linlithgow | (80) | Weſt Lothian — | Linlithgow, Burrough ſtonneſs, & Queen's-ferry. |
| 18. Argyle | (314) | Argyle, Cowal, Knap-Dale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Iſla, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Terif, Col, and Liſmore — | Inverary, Dunſtaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown. |
| 19. Perth | (570) | Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormont, Glenſhield, and Raynork | Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld. |
| 20. Kincardin | (109) | Merns — — | Bervie, Stonhive and Kincardin. |
| 21. Aberdeen | (551) | Mar, Buchan, Garioch and Strathbogie | Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Fraſerſburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum. |
| 22. Inverneſs | (282) | Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmoriſon | Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Boileau |
| 23. Nairne<br>24. Cromartie | (27) and (24) | Weſtern part of Murray and Cromartie | Nairne, Cromartie. |
| 25. Fife | (387) | Fife — — | St. Andrews, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Iſland, Dumfermline, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour |
| 26. Forfar | (326) | Forfar, Angus — | Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin. |
| 27. Bamff | (182) | Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan | Bamff and Cullen. |
| 28. Sutherland | (100) | Strathnaver and Sutherland — — | Strathy and Dornoch. |
| 29. Clacmannan and<br>30. Kinroſs | (31) (23) | Fife part — — | Culroſs, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinroſs. |

31. Roſs

| Shires. | | Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 31. Roſs | (201) | Eaſter and Weſter Roſs Iſles of Lewis Lochbroom, Lochcarren Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald | Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſamarkie, and New Kelſo. |
| 32. Elgin | (145) | Murray and Strathſpey | Elgin and Forres. |
| 33. Orkney | (183) | Iſles of Orkney and Shetland — | Kirkwall, W. lon. 3 N. lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London N. lat. 61. |

In all thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great-Britain: Bute and Caithneſs chooſing alternately as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinroſs.

The royal Boroughs which chooſe repreſentatives are,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Edinburgh — | 1 | Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Stirling —— | 1 |
| Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne | 1 | | |
| Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne and Forres. — — | 1 | Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton — | 1 |
| Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore — | 1 | Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh | 1 |
| Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin | 1 | Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk — | 1 |
| Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews — | 1 | Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban and Kircudbright | 1 |
| Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem | 1 | Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn | 1 |
| Dyſert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland — | 1 | Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Campbeltown, and Inverary — | 1 |

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, daylight, at Midſummer, laſts 18 hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the ſame proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, however, which are generally covered with ſnow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The ſoil in general is not ſo fertile as that of England; and in many places leſs fitted for agriculture than for paſture. At the ſame time, there are particular plains and vallies of the moſt luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, inceſſantly waſhed down from the mountains, and

and repoſited in theſe vallies, afford them a vegetative nouriſhment, which is capable of carrying the ſtrongeſt plants to perfection: though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come ſo ſoon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of ſoils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diverſified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vaſt inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particularly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſituations for country houſes, of which many of the Scottiſh nobility and gentry have ſo judiciouſly availed themſelves. It is their ſituation, more than any expenſive magnificence, that occaſions the ſeats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopton, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where elſe, depends on the qualities of the ſoil through which it paſſes. Water paſſing through a heavy ſoil is turbid and noxious, but filtrating through ſand or gravel, it is clear, light, and ſalutary to the ſtomach. This laſt is in general the caſe in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more ſouthern climates, in proportion as the land is worſe.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and join thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rifes near the eaſtern coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, ſometimes go by the celtic word *Laws*. Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particulariſed here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German ſea to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue themſelves at Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, after many beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, and, after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, oppoſite to the iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſhes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers go by the name of *eſk*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in that part of Great-Britain, was undertaken at a very conſiderable expence, by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which

which a communication has been opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Locheſs, Loch-Au, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch picturesque ſcenes as are ſcarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of theſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scotch ſometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the ſea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant olorina, which grows in its waters, with a ſtraight ſtalk and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Lochneſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochabar, receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the ſea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtoun bay: ſometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Etrick wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the work ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS ] Though Scotland does not at preſent boaſt of its gold mines, yet, it is certain, that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt that Scotland formerly afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority

minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which ſince that time have never been recovered. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins ſtruck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel; however the taſte for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; alum mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potters clay, and fullers earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made uſe of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taſte the ſweets, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } It is certain that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid, that ſome tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are ſo far leſs exhauſted and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to

500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone incloſures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are ſaid to fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned, that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture: for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emulate the Dutch themſelves in curing, as well as catching, their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsfully as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh and Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domeſtic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heath-cock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe are the capperkaily, and the tarmacan, which is of the pheaſant kind, but theſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and when diſcovered are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſouthern paſtures, have been reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vaſt increaſe of manufactures, whoſe demand for butcher's meat muſt leſſen the exportation of cattle into England. Some

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are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent: but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland was unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that about the time of the Union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management, but with what ſucceſs time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls. This calculation reſts merely upon vague conjectures, as I know of no attempt that has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The only records at preſent that can be appealed to, are thoſe of the army; and, by the beſt information, they make the number of ſoldiers furniſhed by Scotland in the war which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to obſerve, that about 60,000 of theſe were raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands, which form by far the leaſt populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, excluſive of the army, ſends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we conſult the moſt ancient and creditable hiſtories, the population of Scotland in the thirteenth century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo many thouſands to fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any ſenſible decreaſe (ſo far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of characteriſtical feature, that of high cheek bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive, that the ridiculous family pride which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all their horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family differences, eſpecially the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſts of the common people only, for they were authorized and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature,

and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war: for in time of peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the moſt civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the ſovereign. Theſe ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates; and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of outvying each other in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandizement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility.

The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh from them thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there can ſcarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry, are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a popiſh conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners.

The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid œconomy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions, and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity, and reſolution, with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies; witneſs that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of 20,000 people; and though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young Pretender after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarcely be believed, were it not well atteſted.

They affect a fondneſs for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond, perhaps, any people in the world; but this attachment is ſeldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or diſguſtful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of the ancient Scotch diſhes, ſuch as the haggeſs, the ſheep's head ſinged, the fiſh in ſauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. Theſe diſhes, in their original dreſſing, were ſavoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the moſt delicate palates.

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The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the ſubject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of muſic, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtript of that original ſimplicity, which, however irregular, is their moſt eſſential characteriſtic, is ſo agreeable to the ear, and has ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively and merry ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs, by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſhood invented by his countrymen, in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted in their church muſic, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland; but, were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the muſic itſelf is ſufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reaſon they ſeem to enjoy them more completely. One inſtitution there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each gueſt pays according to his inclination or ability, but ſeldom under a ſhilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow-countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, and the deceaſed is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or addreſs to the people, or prayers or farther ceremony, than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without any burial ſervice. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the *Goff*, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded

with lead, and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the *Mall*, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of *Curling* is likewiſe, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding winter and ſummer diverſions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen conſidering it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place theſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This ſtuff conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlander wears a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues: ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *philig*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and I make no doubt is the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the *philibeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs), ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, and thoſe of the Tuſcans (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original), as they are to be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

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The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs, rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden, rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and for its lightneſs and freedom of the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middle ranks of the Low Country, differ little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks are much the ſame in both kingdoms, but not ſo as to their neatneſs, and the cleanneſs of the female ſervants.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. At preſent, the pronunciation of a Scotchman is greatly improving, and with ſome does not differ from the pronunciation of a Londoner, more than that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome parts of Worceſterſhire.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden: the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl Morton, and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians call Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Dioclefian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence or rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at laſt prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkneſs which for many ages overſpread Europe; though their dependance upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner in the work of reformation, to John Huſs, and Jerom of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther, and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England was reſerved to the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and ſciences began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and enquiring people, but gave riſe to the Reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apoſtle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility who had parcelled out thoſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which, through the fury of the mob, deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great ſtruggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of vaſt importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and œconomical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay, that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is ſaid, that even that relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting-ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides

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in the world. In ſhort, the power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes; but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of the proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain, and the Weſtern Iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which we may call the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of under twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders: but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk-ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. The commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often of the firſt quality of the country.

The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets once a year: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confuſion; which the moderator, who is choſen by them to be as it were ſpeaker of the houſe, has not ſufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority to the general aſſembly. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power: and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods, are preſbyteries, ſixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each conſiſting of a number of contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder, choſen half-yearly out of every ſeſſion, compoſes a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion; but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cogniſance of all eccleſiaſtical cauſes and matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy, otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs,

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A kirk-ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſter, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act pretty much as churchwardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. They are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion-table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling-elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

It has already been obſerved, that the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland is preſbyterian; that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery; but at preſent it is mild and gentle, and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines, are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline, which were ſuppoſed to be incompatible with the nature of government. A vaſt number of theſe ſeceding congregations are to be found in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers,; though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they fly in the face of the civil power, or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable: and perhaps many of theſe *ſeceſſions* are lawful, or to be juſtified, on account of the great abuſes of patronages, by which many pariſhes have unworthy or incapable miniſters impoſed upon them, as is the caſe in many places in England.

A different ſet of diſſenters in Scotland conſiſts of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers, many papiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe king William's title. The partiſans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered ſo unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings which they held under the Act of Toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland; the Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according

according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition was lately raiſed againſt them, fearing their liberties were about to be enlarged, they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhopricks, St. Andrews and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhopricks, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland; and many others ſince, whoſe bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnarus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the Norman invaſion, which are come to our hands, are ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, ſettling, and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtyle of Buchanan's hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes, are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This has been conſidered as a proof, that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery, which in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſtone. And ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning, has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of ſir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſure, but almoſt

deſerted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simſon, ſo well known over Europe, for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and above all his Conic Sections, are ſufficient, of themſelves, to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathematicians and aſtronomers. The fine arts have been called ſiſters to denote their affinity. There is the ſame conection between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics and phyſics, properly ſo called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, and Whytt, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to Locke's Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERS.TIES.] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews*, founded in 1411.—Glaſgow †, 1454.—Aberdeen §, 1477.—And Edinburgh ‡, 1582.

CITIES.

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* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Profeſſors in

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| Greek, | Moral Philoſophy, | Church Hiſtory, |
| Humanity, | Natural Philoſophy, | Divinity, |
| Hebrew, | Mathematics, | Medicine. |
| Logic, | Civil Hiſtory, | |

† Glaſgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Profeſſors in

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| Greek, | Moral Philoſophy. | Divinity, |
| Humanity, | Natural Philoſophy, | Civil and Scotch Law, |
| Hebrew, | Mathematics, | Medicine, |
| Oriental Languages, | Practical Aſtronomy, | Anatomy. |
| Logic, | Hiſtory, | |

§ Aberdeen has properly two colleges viz. King's College, and Mariſchal College; King's College has a Chancellor, Rector Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

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| Greek, | Philoſophy, | Civil Law, |
| Humanity, | Divinity, | Medicine. |
| Oriental Languages, | | |

Mariſchal college has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

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| Greek, | Natural Philoſophy | Divinity, |
| Oriental Languages, | Mathematics, | Medicine, |
| Moral Philoſophy and Logic, | | |

‡ Edinburgh

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. This caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territories reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots, till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle, and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived: the high-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides, north and ſouth. In former times the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious for the uſe of a family; ſo that the high-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line, and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was ſo ſhockingly inconvenient, that the Engliſh, who ſeldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepeſt impreſſions of Scotch naſtineſs, which became proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia, is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters: and the inſide contains magnificent apart-

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‡ Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Profeſſors in

Divinity.
Church Hiſtory,
Greek,
Humanity,
Hebrew,
Logic,
Moral Philoſophy,
Natural Philoſophy.
Mathematics,
Civil Hiſtory,
Natural Hiſtory,
Scotch Law,
Civil Law,
Law of Nature and Nations,
Rhetoric and Belles Lettres,
Botany,
Materia Medica.
Inſt. of Phyſic and Medicine,
Practice of Medicine,
Chemiſtry,
Anatomy,
Midwifery.

ments

ments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the Palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at preſent nothing can be more uncomfortable than its ſituation, at the bottom of bleak unimproved crags and mountains, with ſcarcely a ſingle tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of ſtone galleries, ſupported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years ago, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balcanquhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others. It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and eduation of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural, and ſome literary curioſities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament-Square, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court

of

of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord ordinary, preſides by rotation; in a room near it, ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining to the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miſerably dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and the papers in rooms far better ſuited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the Exchange, public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the vaſt improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have begun to build a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with the utmoſt regularity, and the houſes are to be built of ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with all the conveniencies that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed in all the beauties of architecture, diſplaying at the ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town, lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the aſcent towards the new town covered with pleaſure gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſign fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magiſtrates, who, finding greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradeſmen upon building leaſes; this ſpot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuiſance to thoſe gentlemen who had been ſo liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the ſummit. A deciſion of the Houſe of Lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally diſtinguiſhed for his taſte and good ſenſe, heartily concurred) put a ſtop to theſe mean erections. At the weſt, or upper end of this vale, the caſtle, a ſolid rock, not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in deſcribing this place, that the reader may form ſome idea of its pleaſant ſituation, ſtanding on an eminence,

with

with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward gives full ſcope to the eye, pleaſes the imagination, and fills the mind with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire. One agreeable proſpect, however, is ſtill wanting, a handſome clean inn, or tavern, with a genteel coffee-room towards that ſide which overlooks the Forth; and which might eaſily be accompliſhed by ſubſcription, and from the great reſort of travellers could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which encloſes it on the ſouth ſide of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. A certain claſs of readers would perhaps think it unpardonable, ſhould I omit mentioning that Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and that concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon, and here are 14; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions, but at Edinburgh; they ſerve for the city watch, and patrole the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes 16 companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burden. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expence of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable, but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily increaſing; ſome of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopton-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles

miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440 by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. The houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the fineſt ſtyle of architecture; and the cathedral is a ſtupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a very fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a maſterly and matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rigid Reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town-houſe is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is at preſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals; and it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of ſtrangers of any rank. They have lately built a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal; which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been eſtimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the ſhire-town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well built city, and has a good quay, or ride-harbour: in it are three churches, and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well frequented univerſity, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other: it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of theſe two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other. Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic: it is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great Britain, called the Carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to ſundry foreign parts;

and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county of Angus: the firſt has a great and flouriſhing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

It may be neceſſary again to put the reader in mind, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to Scotland, on account of its improving ſtate. I have rather under than over-rated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 ſouls, which is the common computation, to which I all along conform myſelf: but the influx of people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterations for the better, and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants who are diſpoſed to induſtry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why I omit a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Grenock, Paiſley, Sterling, and about 50 other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland. But great allowances are to be made on the other hand, for the large emigrations of many to England, America, the Weſt and Eaſt Indies, for new ſettlements.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced: and, indeed, at this day, their forts would make but a ſorry figure, if regularly attacked. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Sterling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hours, if beſieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the Weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of that neighbourhood; as are Fort George, and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt: but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

I ſhall not pretend to enter upon a deſcription of the noble edifices that, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, have been erected by private perſons in Scotland, becauſe they are ſo numerous, that to particularize them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is ſufficient to ſay, that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries, and the reader's ſurprize at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry in Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expence. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which anciently abounded in Scotland; but at the time of the Reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed, by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long and ſore ſufferings they had endured from the popiſh party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The Roman, and other antiquities, found in Scotland, have of themſelves furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that, without ſome freſh diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The courſe of the Roman

man wall (or as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood *. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a ſtriking remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three of them are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decuma.a, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Sterlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demoliſhed, by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounts of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis: which ſerve to evidence that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northwards.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

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* Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonſhire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill, upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles, which exciting the curioſity of the peaſantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire ſubterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart load of theſe materials. A gentleman who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means, upon the ſecond day, to ſtop all farther proceedings, in hopes that ſome public ſpirited perſons would, by taking off the ſurface, explore the whole without demoliſhing it. The tiles are of ſeven different ſizes; the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs, of a reddiſh colour, and in a perfectly ſound condition. The leſſer ones compoſe ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerve as a roof to ſupport the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is ſurrounded by a ſubterraneous wall of hewn ſtone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a ſooty kind of earth, were found in the paſſages; from which ſome have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the uſe of the neighbouring garriſon.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes of ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire, but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts.

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without the ſtaircaſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn freeſtone, laid circularly and regularly tapering towards the top. If theſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people muſt have had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman ſtyle of architecture. It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſtand in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Chriſtian origin. It is not indeed impoſſible that theſe ſculptures are of a later date. Beſides theſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildings are found in Scotland, but not of the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots themſelves, are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics not intelligible at this day, but minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions: but it muſt be acknowledged, that the obſcurity of their ſculptures has encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forres, of Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a very ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well cut flag ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides

ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well finiſhed carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion on the reverſe, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very ſtriking; and many parts of that fine building have ſtill the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The weſt door is highly ornamented, there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice diſplays very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles, may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverugie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earl-mareſchals of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile, ſituated on a ſteep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Vaſt rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the defect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntley are the ruins of Huntley caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway. The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments, and in particular their curious cielings are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scottiſh antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip, with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium near Dunſtaffage caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of pumices or ſcoria of different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of the volcanic Iceland. Among other natural curioſities of this country, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea-ſhells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Roſs-ſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a ſpungy porous rock at the top, doth quickly conſolidate after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully exa-

mined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In theſe reſpects Scotland has, for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on an Eaſt and Weſt-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterprize. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long langour of the Scottiſh commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country ſuſtained, by the diſguſt the inhabitants conceived on that account, and ſome invaſions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconſiſtent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow ſettlements of family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might contribute to the ſame cauſe.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragement granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan: and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that ever Great Britain was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots, have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt-Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe 30 years paſt has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for theſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſt, for they have a great concern in the whale fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increaſing, open inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The

The buſſes, or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring iſlands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciouſly calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength, and its commerce. But though the political exiſtence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of our ſeamen, this noble inſtitution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of thoſe who have embarked in it, and unleſs vigorouſly ſupported will end in ſmoke.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was with-held from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes they have again embarked in the fiſhery, and it is to be wiſhed, that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place this fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by other manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Sterlingſhire.

Their linen-manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inckle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,cool excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at preſent ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scot-

land. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley alone employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected every-where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe. After all that has been ſaid, many years will be required before the trade and improvements of Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be the ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great land holders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland, have wiſely abandoned French claret and brandy, (though too much is ſtill made uſe of in that country), for rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own malt-liquors, are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; and it is ſaid, that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the Plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation that we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but denomination of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France, or as others ſay, on account of his victory over Athelſtane, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his poſterity would ever bear the figure of that croſs in their enſigns on which the ſaint ſuffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit.* "None ſhall ſafely provoke me." The ordinary ſymbols worn by the knights, are a ſtar of four points, in the centre is a Thiſtle properly embroidered on the left breaſt, and a green ribband over their left ſhoulder, appendent to which is the image of St. Andrew. According to the ſtatutes of James II. the ribband was to be a blue watered tabby, which by queen Anne in 1703 was changed to green. George I. added the rays of glory to ſurround the figure of St. Andrew, which hangs at the collar.

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient conſtitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exerciſing a deſpotic authority. But the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind, to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppreſs their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, That I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhew mercy unto me, and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournment, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even intruſted with the executive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority

minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and ſon in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the acts ſtill extant. In ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt over-grown of his ſubjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhewed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by their clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependance upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen jointly choſe eight barons (or knights of the ſhire), and eight commiſſioners for burghs; and to all thoſe were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles: and though Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. It is aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberate and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much

much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great, were the lord high chancellor, high-treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary: the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice clerk. Since the Union none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice clerk: a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon a diviſion. The lord advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king, or his donator, hath intereſt. Two ſolicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk, entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex facialium, or g[illegible]l herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly an office of great ſplendour and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the caſe in England, in all armorial affairs might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland before the Revolution, had, or aſſumed inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great-Britain; and the civil and criminal cauſes in Scotland are chiefly cogniſable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is, that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themſelves the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote,

but

but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any inquiry how far ſuch an inſtitution, in ſo narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the ſecurity of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of ſurpriſe, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I ſhall juſt add, that the lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh Houſe of Lords, to which an appeal lies.

The juſtice court is the higheſt criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord-juſtice-general, removable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without any neceſſity of their being unanimous.

Beſides theſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority, privilege, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewiſe competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and are ſtill veſted in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a ſupreme court, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh waters and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within flood mark; ſo that nothing competent to its juriſdiction can be meddled with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the ſeſſion, or any other judicatory, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Cauſes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in ſuch caſes, is likewiſe the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wiſby, and the Hanſe towns, and other maritime practices and deciſions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the ſalary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of diſtinction, with conſiderable perquiſites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which anſwers to the Engliſh inns of court, may be called the ſeminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themſelves an orderly court, and their forms require great preciſion and examination to qualify its candidates for admiſſion. Subordinate to

them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who called themſelves writers to the ſignet, becauſe they alone can ſubſcribe the writs that paſs the ſignet; they likewiſe have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we ſhall paſs to thoſe that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly veſted in ſheriffs and ſtewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commiſſaries, juſtices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly ſheriffdoms were generally hereditable; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all veſted in the crown; it being there enacted, that all high-ſheriffs, or ſtewards, ſhall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors. In regard to the ſheriff deputes, and ſteward-deputes, it is enacted, that there ſhall only be one in each county, or ſtewartry, who muſt be an advocate, of three years ſtanding at leaſt. For the ſpace of ſeven years, theſe deputies are to be nominated by the king, with ſuch continuance as his majeſty ſhall think fit; after which they are to enjoin their office *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unleſs guilty of ſome offence. Some other regulations have been likewiſe introduced, highly for the credit of the ſheriffs courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the ſtewarts had much the ſame power in them as the ſheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal juriſdiction veſted in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but theſe were ſo dangerous, and ſo extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now diſſolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to matters not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal caſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery; but the puniſhment is not to exceed twenty ſhillings ſterling, or ſetting the delinquent in the ſtocks for three hours, in the day time. Theſe courts, however petty, were in former days inveſted with the power of life and death, which they have now loſt.

The court of commiſſaries in Scotland anſwer to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors, the higheſt of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and teſtaments; the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tythes, divorces, and cauſes of that nature; but in almoſt all other parts of the kingdom, there ſits but one judge on theſe cauſes.

According to the preſent inſtitution, juſtices of the peace in Scotland exerciſe pretty much the ſame powers as thoſe in England. In former times their office, though of very old ſtanding, was inſignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter diſpoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors; the office, however, is at preſent much diſuſed in Scotland.

From

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter alledge, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, their oldeſt law-books from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, ſay, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extenſive, and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners and merchants, by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, ſuch as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon, and herrings, and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary: ſo that, in truth, the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very ſingular inſtitution, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and conſtitution of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to deſcend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of ſederunt, anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch conſtitutions, is called the Moot, or Mure-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folc-mote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the firſt inhabitants; the Picts, undoubtedly were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and who ſettling in Scotland were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots moſt probably,

bably, were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth, appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people in proceſs of time, were ſubdued by the Scots.

Having premiſed thus much, it is unneceſſary for me to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to add to what I have already ſaid upon that head, that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward, to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the 21ſt in a lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant reſiſtance obliged Agricola himſelf, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth already mentioned; and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith, which will be deſcribed in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the deſcendants of the ancient Britons, forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scots monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe: but it broke out with more luſtre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief:

lief: and in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians; for ſo all nations were called who were not Roman, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldeſt hiſtories, and thoſe that are leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ſucceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, but generally deſcended collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mode of ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that by degrees it fell into diſuſe, and it was at laſt ſettled in the right line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an exiſtence. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the vaſt dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already obſerved under the article of learning. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland, as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt; who, being maſters of the ſea, harraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh, for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs, who then governed England, were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots; who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which ſignify a *large head*, but moſt probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakſpeare, and who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud, was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwic, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned

dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were ſucceeded by Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. who was a wiſe and valiant prince; he was ſucceeded by Alexander I. and upon his death, David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears, that David was one of the greateſt princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and adventures, and the reſources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the firſt rank. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to conſider, theſe were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon, Malcolm IV. and he by William ſurnamed from his valour the Lion. William's ſon Alexander II. was ſucceeded in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David, and Margaret who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William's whole poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, becauſe it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great grand-ſon to David earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not then ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome abſolete abſurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him: but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many endeavours to annex their crown to his own; which were often defeated, and though Edward for a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt againſt him on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe of them who were ſo zealouſly

attached to the independence of their country, as to be reſolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame; and for ſome time they were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him; and moſt barbarouſly carried off, or deſtroyed all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter-Abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to careſs them, and affected to treat them on a footing of an equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen, for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London, as a traitor; but he died himſelf, as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed, according to the beſt hiſtorians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed the crown, but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland)

Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Weſtern Iſles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas eſpecially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were ſent priſoners to England, where the beſt of his friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed ſtill than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 100,000 men, though this has been ſuppoſed to be an exaggerated computation: however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes who had been bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty hoſt towards Stirling, then beſieged by Bruce; who had choſen with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in Scotland; his nephew Randolph earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory. The great loſs of the Engliſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, which was immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots: and Edward himſelf with a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of their horſes, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314*.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered were they by religious conſiderations, that, in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown by holding it of England: and that they would do the ſame by Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland,

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoffing ballad, made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows.

Maydens of England ſore may ye mourn,
For your lemmons you have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!
What ho! ween'd the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland.
With a rumby low!

at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indiſputably the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law and enemy Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predeceſſors upon the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was moſt ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns: but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life, he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greateſt of his anceſtors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been ſuddenly killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh.

Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, being ſlain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His ſon, James IV. was the moſt accompliſhed prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his ſubjects, ſo that they greatly increaſed in riches; and the

the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was ſplendid and reſpectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family diſtemper, a predilection for the French, in whoſe cauſe he raſhly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the Engliſh, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the firſt being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the ballance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign affairs; he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the Reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the inſtigation of the clergy, to a religious perſecution, though it is generally believed that, had he lived longer, he would have ſeized all the church revenues in imitation of Henry. However, having rather ſlighted ſome friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this ſhort expedition, the Engliſh army retired to Berwick. Upon this, the king of Scotland ſent ten thouſand men to the weſtern borders, who entered England, at Solway Frith; and he himſelf followed them at a ſmall diſtance, ready to join them upon occaſion. But he ſoon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commiſſion and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were ſo much diſguſted with this alteration, that they were ready to diſband, when a ſmall body of Engliſh horſe appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic ſeized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, ſuppoſing themſelves to be attacked by the whole Engliſh army. The Engliſh horſe, ſeeing them flee with ſuch precipitation, cloſely purſued them, and ſlew great numbers, taking priſoners ſeven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred ſoldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordance. This diſaſter ſo much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illneſs, of which he ſoon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her miſconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the Reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her own couſin-german, the lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death hath given riſe to much controverſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was ungenerouſly detained a priſoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of ſtate

policy beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhewing conſiderable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people of Scotland: for the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a ſplendid, but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his deſpotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottiſh and his Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him: and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army; they at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made ſeveral bloody, but unſucceſsful attempts, to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the commonwealth of England, and the protector, gave law to Scotland. I have, in another place, touched on the moſt material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of king William, who was ſo far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, ſhe was brought to the brink of ruin.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs once more had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſal; but at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

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# ENGLAND.

## Extent and Situation.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 380 | between | 50 and 56 North latitude. |
| Breadth | 300 | | 2 Eaſt and 6-20 Weſt longitude. |

Climate and boundaries. THE longeſt day in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt in the ſouthern, near 8 hours. It is bounded on the north, by that part of the iſland called Scotland; on the eaſt, by the German ocean; on the weſt, by St. George's Channel; and on the ſouth, by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France, and contains 49,450 ſquare miles.

The


British Statute Miles.
10 20 30 40
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLISH
SEA
IRISH
CHANNEL
ST. GEORGES
Fair Head
Coleraine
Londonderry
Raphoe
Connor
Carrickfergus
Antrim
Belfast
Dromore
Down Patrick
Strangford Bay
Dundalk
Carlingsford Bay
Drogheda
Howth Hd
DUBLIN
Dublin Harb.
Wicklow
Leighlin
Ferns
Wexford Hav.
Wexford
Waterford
Inismore
Cloyne
Mull of Galloway
Wigtoun
Kirkudbright
Dumfries
Lochmaben
Annan
Peebles
Lauder
Selkirk
Jedburgh
Carlisle
CUMBERLAND
Workington
St Bees Hd
Penrith
Appleby
WEST MORELAND
Ayre Pt
Ramsey
Douglas
Isle of Man
Peel
Castletown
Calf of Man
Derby Fort
Walney I
Rossal Pt
Garstang
LANCASHIRE
Preston
Formby Pt
Ayr Pt
St Asaph
Carnarvon Bay
Holy Head
ANGLESEY
Bangor
CARNARVONSH
DENBIGHSH
Chester
CHESHIRE
Nantwich
Stockport
Harlech
MERIONETH SH
Llanbedr
Dunas
Aberystwith
CARDIGAN BAY
Cardigan
Machynlleth
MONTGOMERYSH
Montgomery
Ellesmere
Shrewsbury
SHROPSH
Wenlock
Bridgnorth
Ludlow
RADNORSH
New Radnor
Lemster
HEREFORD
Hereford
Llanarth
Newcastle
Lanbydder
CARMARTHEN SH
BRECKNOCK SH
Brecon
MONMOUTH SH.
GLAMORGAN SH.
Landaff
Cardiff
Bristol Channel
Lundy I
Bridgwater Bay
Bridgwater
Wells
Bath
Chepstow
Bristol
GLOCESTER
SOMERSET SH
Barnstable
Hartland Pt
Hartland
Bideford
Somerton
Taunton
Tiverton
Stratton
Bossiney
Camelford
DEVON
Exeter
Okehampton
Broadwood
Honiton
DORSET SH
Dorchester
Padstow
Launceston
Tavistock
Chudleigh
Ashburton
Plymouth
Torbay
Race of Portland
St Michael
Bodmin
Liskeard
St Germans
Alston
Bear
Tregony
Truro
St Ives
C. Cornwall
Penzance
Pendeen
Plymouth Sd
Start Bay
Start Pt
Eddystone
Scilly P.
Land's End
Falmouth Haven
Mounts Bay
Lizard Pt
7 West Longit from London
6
5
4
3


ENGLAND
and
WALES
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
BRITISH OCEAN
CHANNEL
NETHERLANDS
FRANCE
NORFOLK
SUFFOLK
LINCOLN SHIRE
YORK SHIRE
Berwick upon Tweed
Holy Isle
Sunderland Pt
Tynemouth Cas.
Sunderland
Durham
Tees Mouth
Whitby
Filing Ness
Scarborough
Flamborough Hd
Hornsey
Spurn Hd
Humber Riv.
Barton
Grimsby
Alford
Wainfleet
Boston
Wells
Cromer
Winterton Ness
Gr. Yarmouth
Norwich
Lynn Regis
Thetford
Diss
Southwold
Aldborough
Ipswich
Sudbury
Harwich
Blackwater R.
Maldon
Thames
Margate
Middleburg
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
St. Vallery
Dieppe
Dover
Hythe
Rye
Hastings
Beachy Hd
Straits of Dover
Selsey Bill
Portsmouth
I. of Wight
Race of Portland
Degrees East London
0
1
2
3
4
53
54
55
52
51
50

The ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occaſioned by refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies; other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers*, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending Wales. And,

3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England about the year 450, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themſelves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms. But in time of war, a chief was choſen out of the ſeven kings; for which reaſon I call it a political republic, its conſtitution greatly reſembling that of ancient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon Heptarchy.

| Kingdoms. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823. | Kent — | Canterbury. |
| 2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600. | Suſſex — | Chicheſter |
| | Surry — | Southwark. |
| 3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793. | Norfolk — | Norwich |
| | Suffolk — | BurySt.Edmonds, |
| | Cambridge — | Cambridge |
| | With the Iſle of Ely | Ely. |

| Kingdoms. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 4. Weſt-Saxons, founded by Cerdic 512, and ended in 1060. | Cornwall — | Launceſton |
| | Devon — | Exeter |
| | Dorſet — | Dorcheſter |
| | Somerſet — | Bath |
| | Wilts — | Saliſbury |
| | Hants — | Wincheſter |
| | Berks — | Abingdon. |
| 5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792. | Lancaſter — | Lancaſter |
| | York — | York |
| | Durham — | Durham |
| | Cumberland — | Carliſle |
| | Weſtmoreland — | Appleby |
| | Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh — | Newcaſtle. |
| 6. Eaſt-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746. | Eſſex — | London. |
| | Middleſex, and part of Hertford — | |
| 7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874. | The other part of Hertford | Hertford |
| | Glouceſter — | Glouceſter |
| | Hereford — | Hereford |
| | Worceſter — | Worceſter |
| | Warwick — | Warwick |
| | Leiceſter — | Leiceſter |
| | Rutland — | Oakham |
| | Northampton — | Northampton |
| | Lincoln — | Lincoln |
| | Huntingdon — | Huntingdon |
| | Bedford — | Bedford |
| | Buckingham — | Aylesbury |
| | Oxford — | Oxford |
| | Stafford — | Stafford |
| | Derby — | Derby |
| | Salop — | Shrewſbury |
| | Nottingham — | Nottingham |
| | Cheſter — | Cheſter. |

I have been the more ſolicitous to preſerve theſe diviſions, as they account for different local cuſtoms, and many very eſſential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their riſe from different inſtitutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invaſion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middleſex and Cheſhire, are comprehended in ſix circuits, or annual progreſs of the judges, for adminiſtering juſtice to the ſubjects who are at a diſtance from the capital. Theſe circuits are:

| Circuits. | Counties. | | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Home Circuit. | Eſſex | — | Chelmsford, Colcheſter, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford. |
| | Hertford | — | Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Biſhop's-Stortford, Berkhamſted, Hemſted, and Barnet. |
| | Kent | — | Maidſtone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rocheſter, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverſham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton. |
| | Surry | — | Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking. |
| | Suſſex | — | Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth. |
| 2. Norfolk Circuit. | Bucks | | Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel. |
| | Bedford | | Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, and Biggleſwade. |
| | Huntingdon | | Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Ramſey, and Yaxley. |
| | Cambridge | — | Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbich. |
| | Suffolk | — | Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleſworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stow-market, Wood-Bridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Eaſterbergholt. |
| | Norfolk | — | Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth. |
| 3. Oxford Circuit. | Oxon | — | Oxford, Banbury, Chippin-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Tame. |
| | Berks | — | Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham. |
| | Glouceſter | — | Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Campden, Stow, Berkeley, Durſley, Lechlade, Tetbury |

| Circuits. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| | | bury, Sudbury, Wotton, & Marſh-field. |
| | Worceſter, — | Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore. |
| | Monmouth | Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport. |
| 3. Oxford Circuit continued. | Hereford — | Hereford, Leominſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs. |
| | Salop — | Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's Caſtle, Whit-Church, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport. |
| | Stafford — | Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone. |
| | Warwick — | Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton. |
| | Leiceſter — | Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby-de-la-Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough. |
| | Derby — | Derby, Cheſterfield, Wirkſworth, Aſhbourne, Bakewell, Balſover, and Buxton. |
| | Nottingham | Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe. |
| 4. Midland Circuit. | Lincoln — | Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle. |
| | Rutland — | Oakham and Uppingham. |
| | Northampton | Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell. |
| | Hants — | Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumſey, Arleſford: and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Iſle of Wight. |
| 5. Weſtern Circuit. | Wilts — | Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminſter. |
| | Dorſet — | Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborn, Shafteſbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, |

| Circuits. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| | | port, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn. |
| | Somerſet — | Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glaſtonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome. |
| 5. Weſtern Circuit. continued | Devon — | Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtaple, Bideford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, and Ilfracomb. |
| | Cornwall — | Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkard, Leſtwiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth. |
| | York — | York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaſter, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareſborough, Barneſley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaſter, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirſke, Giſborough, Pickering, and Yarum. |
| | Durham — | Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Caſtle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland. |
| 6. Northern Circuit*. | Northumberland | Newcaſtle, Tinmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham. |
| | Lancaſter — | Lancaſter, Mancheſter, Preſton, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormſkirk, Hawkſhead, and Newton. |
| | Weſtmoreland | Appleby, Kendal, Lonſdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Amblende, Burton, and Milthorpe. |
| | Cumberland | Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglaſs, Egremont, Keſwick, Workington, and Jerby. |

* In the Lent or Spring aſſizes, the Northern Circuit extends only to York and Lancaſter: the aſſizes at Durham, Newcaſtle, Appleby, and Carliſle being held only in the Autumn, and diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

Middleſex

Middleſex is not comprehended; and Cheſhire is left out of theſe circuits, becauſe, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The ſame may be ſaid of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Counties exclusive of the Circuits. | Middleſex | — | London, firſt meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Weſtminſter, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelſea, Highgate, Hampſtead, Kenſington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court. |
| | Cheſter | — | Cheſter, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodiſham, and Haulton. |

## Circuits of WALES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| North Eaſt Circuit. | Flint | — | Flint, St. Aſaph, and Holywell. |
| | Denbigh | — | Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen. |
| | Montgomery | | Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool. |
| North Weſt Circuit. | Angleſey | — | Beaumaris, Holyhead, & Newburgh. |
| | Caernarvon | | Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly. |
| | Merioneth | | Dolgelly, Bala, and Harleigh. |
| South-Eaſt Circuit. | Radnor | — | Radnor, Preſtean, and Knighton. |
| | Brecon | — | Brecknock, Built, and Hay. |
| | Glamorgan | — | Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swanſey. |
| South-Weſt Circuit. | Pembroke | — | St. David's, Haverfordweſt, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiſcard, and Milfordhaven. |
| | Cardigan | — | Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer. |
| | Caermarthen | | Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdovery, Llandilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy. |

## In ENGLAND.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 40 | Counties, which ſend up to parliament | 80 knights. |
| 25 | Cities (Ely none, London four) —— | 50 citizens. |
| 167 | Boroughs, two each — — | 334 burgeſſes. |
| 5 | Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrars, and Monmouth), one each | 5 burgeſſes. |
| 2 | Univerſities — — — | 4 repreſentatives. |
| 8 | Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford), two each | 16 barons. |

WALES.

## WALES.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 12 Counties — — — | | 12 knights. |
| 12 Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each — — | } | 12 burgeſſes. |

## SCOTLAND.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 33 Shires — — | | 30 knights. |
| 67 Cities and Boroughs — — | | 15 burgeſſes. |
| | Total | 558 |

Beſides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Exeter, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton upon Hull, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its juriſdiction, a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is ſo called, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they ſtill ſend burgeſſes to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at preſent hath, a biſhop, for if the biſhopric be diſſolved, yet the city remains. To have ſuburbs prove it to be a city. Some cities are alſo counties, as before mentioned.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales differs in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the training of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improvements, would require a large volume. All that can be ſaid therefore is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſon happen, England produces corn, not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring large ſums of ready money for her exports. The benefits, however, from theſe exports have ſometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently ſpared, and have laid the poor under diſtreſs: for which reaſon exportations have been ſometimes checked by government. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to ſuch perfection, that the rareſt of foreign fruits have been cultivated here with ſucceſs. If any farther proof of this ſhould be required, let it be remembered, that London and its neighbour-

neighbourhood, though peopled by about 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within 12 miles diſtance.

The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the great fleets that England put to ſea; but as no public complaints of this kind have been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve; unleſs it may be thought that our ſhip-yards have lately been partly ſupplied from America, or the Baltic.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already ſaid concerning the climate *. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by weſterly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied, that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively capricious, and unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have obſerved in the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoary froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, are the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. After ſaying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther deſcription of the Engliſh ſeaſons. Their inconſtancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is hardly ever obſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of King Charles the Second upon this ſubject, which is corroborated by that of Sir William Temple: and it may be obſerved, that they were both travellers. 'I muſt needs add one thing (ſays Sir William, in his *Miſcellanea*, 'part ii. p. 114. edit 8vo. 1690.) in favour of our climate, which I heard the king 'ſay, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and 'eſteemed his own country. It was in reply to ſome company that were reviling our 'climate, and extolling thoſe of Italy and Spain, or at leaſt of France. He ſaid, "He thought that was the beſt climate where he could be abroad in the air with plea"ſure, or at leaſt without trouble or inconvenience, the moſt days in the year, and "the muſt hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England, more than "in any country he knew in Europe." 'And I believe (adds Sir William) it is true, 'not only of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in France and the 'Low Countries themſelves, where the heats or the colds, and changes of ſeaſons are 'leſs treatable (or moderate) than they are with us."

the

the greateſt irregularity and the moſt unfavourable appearances of the ſeaſons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the vaſt improvements of agriculture, for when ſcarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the exceſſive exportations of grain on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In ſpeaking of water, I do not include rivers, brooks, or lakes, I mean waters for the common conveniencies of life, and thoſe that have mineral qualites. The champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains; though a diſcerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is uſed as commonly as any other for medicinal purpoſes; and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS. } The induſtry of the Engliſh is ſuch, as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivatd parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both of them forming proſpects equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of encloſures and plantations, the noble ſeats, comfortable houſes, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are inexpreſſible. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh induſtry, than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames, the nobleſt perhaps in the world, riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little S. W. of Cirenceſter, and after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Waſlingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor.

From

From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge: but for a more particular deſcription the reader muſt conſult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot parallel for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-court have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welſh-Pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury; then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction: is near its mouth increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol Channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and runing ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouſe (a Gaelic word ſignifying *water* in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk: The Tyne runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Firth below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey, which runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lanca-

Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſay mere, in the Iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Weſtmoreland, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire go by the name of Derwent waters.

Forests.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of grounds into foreſts for the benefit of hunting, and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves: ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the foreſt-laws; and juſtices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted; and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are thoſe of Winſor, New Foreſt, the foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Theſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, of cheſnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh and undecayed, though ſome of them are above 600 years old.

Metals and minerals.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before that of the Chriſtian Æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till above 70 years ago; Sir Gibert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners are ſaid to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yield alum and ſalt pits. The Engliſh fullers earth is of ſuch conſequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties. Pit and ſea-coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhoprick of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. This is ſo copious a ſubject, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, even ſince the beſt printed accounts we have had of both, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. I have already touched upon the corn trade of England; but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members are ſo public-ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments which ſerve to ſhew that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection than they are in at preſent. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention to the moſt uninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordſhire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention thoſe improvements, did we not obſerve the natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot-beds, and other means of forcing nature. The Engliſh pine apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia, and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads, in perfection; ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, brocoli, peas, beans, kidney beans, ſpinage, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions, and ſhallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax are in other counties In nothing, however, have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, ſainfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch and the Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes are the beſt of any in the world, whether we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry, render them ſuperior to all others in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chace. Thoſe which draw

draw equipages on the ſtreets of London, are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horſes has of late become a conſiderable article of commerce. The breed of aſſes and mules begin likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds; thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. I have been credibly informed, that in ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs, and that in Lincolnſhire particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of thoſe animals to ſell for 30l. It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which, at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. It is ſuppoſed, that by the fall of the value of the fleeces, during the laſt years of the war, a fourth part of this ſum ought to be deducted, but now peace is reſtored, their price much advances. The other kind of ſheep which are fed upon the downs, ſuch as thoſe of Banſtead, Bagſhot-heath, and Devonſhire, where they have what the farmers call, a ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs are ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world; but, either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England by way of Experiment, turned out two Engliſh bull dogs upon one of the fierceſt lions in the Tower, and they ſoon conquered him. The maſtiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What I have obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the Engliſh game cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage of theſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal, are likewiſe extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowl are pretty much the ſame in England as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, growſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds; canary birds alſo breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake fiſh called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and as ſome ſay no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, ſoles. The john-dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red

mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrips, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell fiſhes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſeas. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great numbers of porpoiſes and ſeals appear in the channel. After all, the Engliſh have been, perhaps, with great juſtice, accuſed of not paying proper attention to their fiſheries, which are confined to a few inconſiderable towns in the weſt of England. The beſt fiſh that comes to the tables of the great in London, are ſold by the Dutch to Engliſh boats, and that induſtrious people even take them upon the Engliſh coaſts. Great attention, it is true, has been paid within theſe forty years, to this important concern. Many public-ſpirited noblemen and gentlemen formed themſelves into a company for carrying on a Britiſh fiſhery. Large ſums were ſubſcribed, and paid with unbounded generoſity. Buſſes and other veſſels were built, and the moſt pleaſing proſpects of ſucceſs preſented themſelves to the public. They were, however, unaccountably diſappointed, though it is hard to ſay from what cauſe, unleſs it was, that the price of Engliſh labour was too dear for bringing the commodity to the market upon the ſame terms as the Dutch.

With regard to reptiles, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms; and inſects, ſuch as ants, gnats, waſps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the reſt of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural hiſtory than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution from the deſpotic powers exerciſed in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reaſon why it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occaſionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably ſoon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners who ſettle in the nation, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the iſlands, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain before the laſt, annually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scotch and Iriſh, by ſea and land; and its progreſs carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice.

At the ſame time, I am not of opinion, that England is at preſent naturally more populous than ſhe was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh of former ages, were ſtrangers to the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living that are deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, might reaſonably be preſumed, would be favourable to mankind: but this advantage is probably more than counterbalanced by the prevailing practice of engroſſing farms, which is certainly unfavourable to population; and independent of this,

upon

upon an average, perhaps, a married couple has not ſuch a numerous progeny now as formerly. I will take the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cogniſance of almoſt every man, and that is the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books, and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to pretend to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales; but in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than 7,000,000. Some however, will ſuppoſe this to be too large a calculation: and it muſt be admitted, that England has been exceedingly drained both of men and money, by the unhappy and deſtructive war with the American colonies. But as to political calculations, the fallibility of theſe appears in a very ſtriking light in thoſe of the population of London, becauſe it is impoſſible to fix it upon any of the known rules or proportions of births and burials. Calculators have been not only miſtaken in applying thoſe rules to London, and, as they are called, the bills of mortality, but even in topical matters, becauſe about 100,000 inhabitants, at the very gates of London, do not lie within the bills of mortality.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons are generally well ſized, regularly featured, commonly fair rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be preſumed, that the vaſt numbers of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions different from thoſe of their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhapes, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life.

Of all the people in the world, the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally affected by imagination; inſomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true name, in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities, which ſo ſtrongly characterize the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution, or conſtancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial aſſociations; and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cures for thoſe mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover, eſpecially of late years. The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes, now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe that their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, under the tuition perhaps of a deſpicable pedant, or family dependant; but they travel for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged

ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of the intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen, as do not ſtrike into thoſe high walks of life, affect rather what we call a ſnug, than a ſplendid way of living. They ſtudy and underſtand better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, and eſtates, and they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe it. It has, however, been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are ſincere, cheerful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernible among tradeſmen. This love of ſnugneſs and conveniency may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues, which are incredible. A good œconomiſt with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from buſineſs; that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or to ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his ſtyle of living is always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

The over-ſenſibility of the Engliſh, is diſcovered in nothing more than in the vaſt ſubſcriptions for public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers, and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality, that ſome time or other may prove injurious to induſtry; becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour; that they may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of age or ſickneſs. The very people who contribute to thoſe collections, are aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for a maintenance; and upwards of three millions ſterling is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions however, of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The vaſt ſums beſtowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby, qualified or unqualified, acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, very often begets heats and cabals, which are very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and too often even to party conſiderations.

Notwithſtanding thoſe noble proviſions, which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of diſtreſs, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice ſeverely puniſhable. This is partly owing to the manner in which the common people live, who conſider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The Engliſh, though iraſcible, are the moſt placable people in the world, and will often ſacrifice part of their intereſt rather than proceed to extremity. They are eaſily prevailed upon to forgive by ſubmiſſion, and they carry this lenity too far, by accepting of profeſſions of ſorrow publiſhed in advertiſements by thoſe who offend them, and who ſeldom are ſincere, nay, often laugh at the eaſineſs of their proſecutors, for diſmiſſing them ſo gently. The unſuſpecting nature of the Engliſh and their honeſt open manners, eſpecially of thoſe in the mercantile way, render them dupes in ſeveral reſpects. They attend to projectors, and no ſcheme is ſo

ridiculous that will not find abettors in England. They liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties, ſometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt bred of the Engliſh, are capable of theſe and the like generous actions; but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is among the generality of the Engliſh of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above moſt other conſiderations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compenſate for the abſence of almoſt every good quality. This offenſive failing, ariſes partly from the people being ſo much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

An Engliſhman, of education and reading, is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world: he is however ſhy and retentive in his communications. This unamiable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Living learning, and genius, often meet not with ſuitable regard even from the firſt rate Engliſhmen: and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the ſtate diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferments in the ſtate, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an inſtance, even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius as ſuch, being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300l. a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels; and Mr. Pope though a Roman catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papiſt. Indeed, a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as well as ſome without, have of late received penſions from the crown; but from the conduct of ſome of them it ſhould ſeem, that ſtate and party ſervices have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt, and all in the ſame perſon. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. This is particularly apt to be the caſe in large companies; but in ſmaller and more ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation, and agreable ſociety, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the Engliſh ſoldier an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon

the muſket. The Engliſh courage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equally paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſences that are to be found in the nation.

All that I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh, is to be underſtood of them in general, as they are at preſent; for it is not to be diſſembled, that every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and above all, the amazing increaſe of territorial as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engliſh, who have become rich without induſtry, and by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nation. Time alone can ſhew the event: hitherto the conſequences ſeem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance in dreſs, and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone an almoſt total alteration. Their ancient hoſpitality ſubſiſts but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occaſions. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned ſtag and fox hunting and horſe races, of which many of the Engliſh are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for thoſe diverſions: the intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. The Engliſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and winning at play, but the former is ſometimes attended with acts of ſuicide. An Engliſhman will rather murder himſelf, than bring a ſharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even though warranted by law. Next to horſe-racing, and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among the great, as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble round the pit at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls,

bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhews, May garlands, and above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt they have brought into an art. The barbarous diverſions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the ſhews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practiſed; and all places of public diverſions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common in other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The Engliſh are amazingly fond of ſcating, in which, however, they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loſs of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich: for the farmers and country people deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh, has been conſidered in various lights.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French: but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear on high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſattins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain: and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all theſe are diſcouraged. Some of theſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth, and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen, and men of buſineſs; that is, to wear a plain ſuit of ſuperfine cloth, excellent linen and wigs that ſuit their complexions, and the form of their faces. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field, on which occaſions they dreſs with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, the dreſſes at court, on particular occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcription. Few even of the loweſt tradeſmen, on Sundays, carry about them leſs than 1 l. in clothing, comprehending hat, wig, ſtockings, ſhoes and linen, and even many beggars in the ſtreets appear decent in their dreſs. In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are otherwiſe; and the

appearance

appearance of an artiſan or manufacturer in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

RELIGION.] Euſebius, and other ancient writers, poſitively aſſert, that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that the ſucceſs of the Romans opened a highway for the triumphs of the goſpel of peace. It is certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Chriſtians; and as their legions were repeatedly ſent over to England to extend as well as preſerve their conqueſts, it is probably that thus Chriſtianity was diffuſed among the natives. If any of the apoſtles viſited this country and our heathen anceſtors, it was St. Paul, whoſe zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the firſt preacher, or the preciſe year and period, the want of records leaves us at a loſs; and all the traditions about Joſeph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the goſpel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes ſuffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, monkiſh legends. We have good authority to ſay, that about the year 150, a great number of perſons profeſſed the Chriſtian faith here, and, according to Archbiſhop Uſher, in the year 182, there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Britiſh churches with proper teachers; and from that period it ſeems as if Chriſtianity advanced its benign and ſalutary influences among the inhabitants in their ſeveral diſtricts. It is unneceſſary to repeat what has been ſaid in the Introduction reſpecting the riſe and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I ſhall only obſerve in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages; and that the eſtabliſhed religion in England, which had its riſe under Henry VIII. is reformed from the errors of popery, and approaches nearer to the primitive Chriſtianity, being equally removed from ſuperſtition and indelicacy in its worſhip, and as void of bigotry as of licentiouſneſs in its practice. The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and it is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror, into temporal baronies, in right of which, every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy, are now freehold, but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The œconomy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings; ſome of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman, eſpecially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this ſeems not eaſy to be remedied, unleſs the dignified clergy would adopt and ſupport the reforming ſcheme. The crown, as well as private perſons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, ſuch as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes; ſome of them exceeding in value thoſe of biſhopricks, for which reaſon the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, is often annexed to a poor biſhoprick. At preſent, the clergy of the church of England as to temporal matters, are in a moſt flouriſhing ſituation, becauſe the value of their tithes increaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The ſovereigns of England, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have been called in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title

title conveys no ſpiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences, or, in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope before the Reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical diſputes, unleſs by preventing the convocation from ſitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers*. The two archbiſhops, are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the addreſs of 'your grace.' The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cogniſable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting in certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury, has by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given) the government of England has chiefly thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of conſiderable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

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* To the following liſt, I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it aſſiſts in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee with thoſe of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Canterbury, - | £.2682 | 12 : 2 | York, - - | £.1610 | 0 : 0 |

BISHOPRICKS.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| London, - - | 2000 | 0 : 0 | Chicheſter, — | 677 | 1 : 3 |
| Durham, - | 1821 | 1 : 3 | St. Aſaph, — | 187 | 11 : 8 |
| Wincheſter, — | 3124 | 12 : 8 | Saliſbury, — | 1385 | 5 : 0 |
| These three biſhoprics take precedency of all others in England, and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations. | | | Bangor, — — | 131 | 16 : 3 |
| | | | Norwich, — | 834 | 11 : 7 |
| | | | Glouceſter, — | 315 | 7 : 3 |
| | | | Lincoln, — — | 894 | 18 : 1 |
| Ely, — | 2134 | 18 : 6 | Landaff, — | 154 | 14 : 2 |
| Bath and Wells, | 533 | 1 : 3 | Briſtol, — — | 294 | 11 : 0 |
| Hereford, — | 768 | 11 : 0 | Carliſle, — | 531 | 4 : 9 |
| Rocheſter, — | 358 | 4 : 0 | Exeter, — | 500 | 0 : 0 |
| Litchfield and Coventry, | 569 | 17 : 3 | Peterborough, — | 414 | 17 : 8 |
| Cheſter, — | 420 | 1 : 8 | Oxford, — | 381 | 11 : 0 |
| Worceſter, — | 929 | 13 : 3 | St. David's — | 426 | 2 : 1 |

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The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſide his own dioceſe, the biſhopricks of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed by the appellation of Your Lordſhips, ſtyled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers, and the biſhopricks of London, Winchester, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods to ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned; but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit, but intereſt often prevails over merit in the appointment. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year, but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtyled arch-preſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, and anſwers pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament, and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high-flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of diſſolving them, and ever ſince they have not been permitted to ſit for any time, in which they could do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempts from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every

archdeacon

archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and in England no religious ſect is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Some ſevere laws were, indeed, lately in force againſt thoſe proteſtant diſſenters who did not aſſent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but theſe laws were not executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a conſiderable augmentation, by an act which was then paſſed for granting a legal toleration to diſſenting miniſters, and ſchool-maſters, without their ſubſcribing any of the articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that epiſcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the reſtoration of his ſon, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicious in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy, and if religious ſectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil licentiouſneſs has prevailed; I mean a tenderneſs in matters that can affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power, for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the *puritans*, ſo called from their maintaining a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. Their deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological ſentiments have undergone a conſiderable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. But the modern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ little from the independents, or congregationaliſts, who are ſo called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any reſpect to doctrine; and in this ſenſe almoſt all the *diſſenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to point of doctrine, the preſbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their miniſters have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities, and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The ſame may be ſaid of ſome of the independent and baptiſt miniſters. The independents are generally Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults, they practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided into two claſſes, which are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general baptiſts are Arminians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters with affection and friendſhip: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several

of them have of late contended in their writing, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly generally conſidered as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſhip have been eſtabliſhed in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and ſeveral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitefield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. They pretend to great fervour and devotion, and their founder thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His followers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the Church of England, and profeſs themſelvs to be Calviniſts. But even the ſect of methodiſts is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader: not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their ſeparate followers, but very few at London and other places in England. Mr. Whitefield died a few years ſince; but the places of worſhip erected by him near London, are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. Mr. Weſley and his followers oppoſe ſome of the Calviniſtic doctrines, particularly that of predeſtination; but they appear ſtill to retain ſome of them. He has lately erected a very large place of public worſhip near Moorfields, and has under him a conſiderable number of ſubordinate preachers, who appear to ſubmit to their leader very implicitly, and who propogate his opinions, and make proſelytes throughout the kingdom, with great induſtry.

The *quakers* form a numerous ſect of diſſenters in England, and perhaps if the profeſſed principles of many of them were to undergo a very ſtrict examination, they would appear to be founded in free-thinking, though they pretend to be guided by internal revelation dictated by the ſpirit of God. That revelation, and that ſpirit, ſeem however, to be juſt what they pleaſe to make them; and if they mean any thing, it is an abſtraction from all ſenſual ideas, in treating of the Chriſtian religion and its myſteries; for they attempt to allegorize all the facts in the goſpel. They diſclaim all religious creeds made uſe of by other Chriſtians, and all the modes of worſhip practiſed in other churches. They diſregard the authority of the clergy, and refuſe to pay thithes, unleſs they are compelled by law. They neither uſe baptiſm, nor partake of the Lord's Supper. They affect a peculiar plainneſs of dreſs, both as to the form and the colours of their cloaths; and they publicly declaim againſt reſiſtance, and the legality of going to war on any account. With regard to the reſurrection of the body, and the doctrine of rewards and puniſhments hereafter, and many other capital points of Chriſtianity, they have not yet explained themſelves authentically; and indeed there ſeems to be a much greater degree of uniformity in their dreſs than in their opinions; though it is probable that the generality of them adhere in ſentiment to the moſt important and fundamental doctrines of Chriſtianity.

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Were all the peculiarities of this ſect to be deſcribed, a reader, not acquainted with it, would be apt to think it impoſſible that it ſhould aſſociate with other Chriſtians. Nothing however is more certain than that the quakers are moſt excellent members of the community. The ſtrictneſs of their morality makes amends for the oddities of their principles, and the ſimplicity of their living for the wildneſs of their opinions. Their œconomy is admirable; for though none of them pretend to any coercive power, yet their cenſures are ſubmitted to as implicitly as if they were Romiſh bigots under an inquiſition. The higheſt puniſhment is a kind of excommunication, but which is taken off upon repentance and amendment, and the party is re-admitted into all the privileges of their body. Their government is truly republican, and admirably well adapted to their principles. They have an annual meeting every Whitſuntide, which is generally held at London, and this is reſorted to by deputies from all parts of Great Britain, Ireland, Holland, Germany, and America. In this meeting is examined the proceedings of their other meetings, which are monthly and quarterly. Indecencies of every kind are cenſured, contributions are received, accounts are examined, and diſcourſes, exhortations, and ſermons are delivered ſuitable to the exigency of the times, and their prevailing vices and immoralities. The good ſenſe for which this ſect is remarkable, renders their leaders more reſpectable than thoſe which royalty or power appoint over other communities. This, with the mildneſs of their behaviour, ſobriety, and great induſtry, have raiſed them high in the eſteem of the legiſlature, which has even indulged them by admitting of their affirmation, inſtead of an oath in civil cauſes, in the courts of juſtice.

I ſhall not enter into their political hiſtory, or relate in what manner one of their number, William Penn, in the reign of Charles II. formed that admirable eſtabliſhment of their order, which ſtill ſubſiſts in Pennſylvania. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that it was found by experience, during the two laſt wars with France, that their principles were incompatible with either civil or military government; and conſequently, that, unleſs their enemies had been quakers likewiſe, they muſt have been maſters of their country. This created great trouble with the mother-country, and it unfortunately happened, that the quakers were as tenacious of their property as of their principles. Neceſſity and danger however, at laſt, compelled them to contribute for their own defence, by their purſes, though we do not find that they did it in their perſons: from all which it appears, that it would be impracticable to form quakers into a civil government of any kind; unleſs pacific principles were happily generally prevalent among mankind than they are.

The ignorance and enthuſiaſm of Fox, and the firſt leaders of this ſect, led the quakers into a thouſand extravagancies, by agitations and convulſions of the body, which they termed the workings of the ſpirit. Barclay, Keith, and ſome other metaphyſical heads, defended the doctrine, though they dropt the ſingularities of the profeſſion. This ſoftened the ridicule of the public, and Barclay's ſucceſſors have omitted in their behaviour and appearance, many of thoſe unmeaning ſingularities. The quakers, it is true, in general, ſtill retain the appellation of *Friend*, inſtead of Sir, and make uſe of *Thou* and *Thee* in diſcourſe; neither are they very ready to pull off their hats, by way of civility or reſpect. They know, however, how to accommodate themſelves to the common uſages of life, upon particular emergencies; and the ſingualarities of a quaker of addreſs are

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now but juſt diſcernible, and can give no offence to politeneſs, unleſs they are affected.

It is impoſſible to ſay any thing with certainty reſpecting the number of quakers in England. In the beginning of the late reign they were eſtimated at 50,000; and I am apt to believe that they are increaſed, though that increaſe is not perceptable, by their laying aſide moſt of their ſingularities. The regularity of their meetings is ſurpriſing, and the admonitions which they give to their brethren, by circular letters from their yearly meetings, are worthy imitation by the moſt civilized government. The payment of tithes is a kind of ſtanding grievance, becauſe it is renewed every year. They are however ſteady in their oppoſition to it. They who pay them voluntarily, are always cenſured. The books relating to their religion which they print, muſt be licenſed by a committee before they are diſperſed.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are not executed, or with ſo much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for their double taxes upon their landed property, and, as they are ſubject to none of the expences and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the Engliſh papiſts are in general in good circumſtances, as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws againſt them have alſo lately been repealed, much to the ſatisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raiſed againſt the meaſure by ignorance and bigotry. The papiſts now ſeem to be convinced, that a change of government, inſtead of bettering would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlator, which muſt undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This ſenſible conſideration has of late made the Roman catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has. Scarcely any Engliſh papiſts excepting thoſe who are bred, or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745, and though thoſe at home were moſt carefully obſerved, few or none of them were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious ſects, ſo it has been famous for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has alſo been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving Chriſtianity, and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original Chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who are truly *deiſts*, or *infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe, that this claſs of men is much more numerous in ſome popiſh countries than in England. Chriſtianity is ſo much obſcured and diſfigured by the fopperies and ſuperſtitions of the Romiſh church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced againſt it, when they ſee it in ſo diſadvantageous a form: and this appears to be in fact very much the caſe abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of ſeeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have leſs cauſe to be prejudiced againſt it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear, that the writings of the Deiſts againſt

Chriſtianity have been of any real diſſervice to it. On the contrary, they have cauſed the arguments in its favour to be uſed with greater force and clearneſs, and have been the means of producing ſuch defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates; and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly, would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader, but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is however ſubject to ſome conſiderable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred perſons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either ſpeak, or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh: but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the few Engliſh who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is much diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe; nor has there ſince his time been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, who was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha the queen of Edward the Confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable if I ſhould omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illuſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of

knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes, and to this work I muſt refer. Since the Reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature *; and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge, that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, did a great deal for the encouragement of theſe foreigners, and ſhewed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigotted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil. In this ſhe ſhewed herſelf a great politician, but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity; for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spenſer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed to death in obſcurity. Though ſhe taſted the beauties of the divine Shakſpeare, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England, continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had a conſiderable effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimilar taſte among his ſubjects.

His ſon Charles I. had a taſte for the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a ſecond Athens; and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000l. ſterling upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities.

The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immenſe acquiſitions he made of antiquities, eſpecially his

* See the Biographia Britannica.

famous

famous marble inſcriptions, he may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Mediceän princes. Charles and his court had little or no reliſh for poetry; but ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Johnſon, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning, and the arts, ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding interregnum. Many very learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they followed their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of vaſt literary merit appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmoleſted and even favoured by that uſurper; and he would alſo have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies, and though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being diſregarded ſo much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtyle, and truer energy than it had ever known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not under him boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet Sir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than has ever been known before in architecture. Nor was Sir Chriſtopher Wren merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect*. His knowledge was very extenſive, and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the new-eſtabliſhed Royal Society. Some excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

* Mr. Horace Walpole ſays, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the univerſality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatneſs of Sir Chriſtopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left upon the whole a more perfect edifice than this work of a ſingle mind. The nobleſt temple, the largeſt palace, and the moſt ſumptuous hoſpital, in ſuch a kingdom as Britain, are all the works of the ſame hand. He reſtored London, and recorded its fall. He built about fifty pariſh churches, and deſigned the monument.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular eſteem for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flouriſhed, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the ſoil in which it had been planted.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of Queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But notwithſtanding theſe favourable circumſtances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage, to which they have ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor is the hiſtorical painter much patronized. Though the Britiſh artiſts of the preſent age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to thoſe of any other nation.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel in what we call the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which occurs, in the appointments for the laſt 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontrollable judicial ſeat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alleged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt

corrupt practices, but malevolence itself does not say that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his servants. The case of one of his successors is still more favourable to his memory, as his censure reflects disgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordship was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conscience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accused of partiality in the causes that came before him as chancellor.

It must be acknowledged, that neither pulpit, nor bar-eloquence, have been sufficiently studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The sermons of their divines are often learned, and always sound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious sects in England require to be opposed rather by reasoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among some of the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language with which they are adorned. A short time perhaps, may remove this prepossession, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the first and fairest handmaid of argumentation. The reader, however, is not to imagine, that I am insinuating that the preachers of the English church are destitute of the graces of elocution; so far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them in the purity and perspicuity of language, though I think that if they consulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the semblance of those powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthusiasts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily see, what must not be the consequence if they were exerted in reality, and supported with spirit and learning?

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast, that the several pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech: and I am apt to think, that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would make a ridiculous appearance in Westminster hall. The English lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning.

Parliamentary speaking, not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence as the English senate in its two houses; witness the fine speeches made by both parties in parliament in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement but such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose. In ship building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they stand unrivalled.

UNIVERSITIES.] I have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and some have ventured to say, than all other literary institutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in splendour and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who in-

habit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. So reſpectable are they in their foundations, that each univerſity ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their chancellors and officers have ever a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is of great antiquity: it is ſuppoſed to have been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden ſays, that "wiſe antiquity did, even in the Britiſh age, conſecrate this place to the Muſes." It is ſaid to have been ſtyled an univerſity before the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that this moſt excellent prince was only a reſtorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar.

The colleges of Oxford are,

Univerſity, which is ſituated near, or on the ſpot, where the colleges or halls which were erected by king Alfred ſtood.

Baliol, founded by Sir John de Baliol, in 1263.

Merton, founded by Walter de Merton, biſhop of Rocheſter, and high chancellor of England, in 1267.

Exeter, founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, biſhop of Exeter, and lord treaſurer of England.

Oriel, founded by Edward II. in the year 1324.

Queen's, founded by Robert Egleſfield, chaplain to queen Philippa, conſort to Edward III. in her honour.

New College, founded in 1386, by William of Wykeham, biſhop of Wincheſter, but finiſhed by Thomas de Rotheram, archbiſhop of York, and lord high chancellor, in the year 1475.

All Souls, founded by Henry Chichely, archbiſhop of Canterbury, in 1437.

Magdalen, founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, biſhop of Wincheſter, and lord chancellor, in the year 1458.

Brazen Noſe, founded in 1516, by William Smith, biſhop of Lincoln.

Corpus Chriſti, founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter.

Chriſt Church, founded by cardinal Wolſey, in 1515, but completed by others, and is now the cathedral of the dioceſe.

Trinity, founded by Sir Thomas Pope, ſoon after the Reformation.

St. John Baptiſt was founded in 1555, by Sir Thomas White, lord mayor of London.

Jeſus, was begun by Dr. Hugh Price, prebendary of Rocheſter, and appropriated chiefly to the Welch.

Wadham, ſo called from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somerſetſhire, Eſq. It was begun by him in the year 1609, but finiſhed after his death, by his lady, in 1613.

Pembroke, ſo called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high chancellor, was founded by Thomas Tefdale, Eſq. and Richard Whitwicke, B. D. in 1624.

Worceſter, was erected into a college, by Sir Thomas Cooke of Aſtley, in Worceſterſhire.

Lincoln

Lincoln college, which was founded by two biſhops of Lincoln.

To theſe nineteen may be added Hertford college, formerly Hart-Hall; but a patent having paſſed the great ſeal in the year 1740, for erecting it into a college, that deſign is now carried into execution.

The five halls are theſe following; Alban-hall, Edmund-hall, St. Mary's-hall, New-Inn-hall, and St. Mary Magdalen-hall.

The Univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are diſtinguiſhed by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every reſpect the ſame. They are the following.

Peter-houſe, founded by Hugh Balſham, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards biſhop of that ſee.

Clare-hall, founded in 1340, by Richard Badew and lady Elizabeth Clare, counteſs of Ulſter.

Pembroke-hall, founded ſeven years after, by a counteſs of Pembroke.

St. Bennet's or Corpus Chriſti, founded about the ſame time, by the united guilds, or fraternities of Corpus Chriſti, and the bleſſed Virgin.

Trinity-hall, founded by William Bateman, biſhop of Norwich, about the year 1548.

Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil, in 1448, completed by biſhop Bateman, and additionally endowed 200 years after, by John Caius, a phyſician.

King's college, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his ſucceſſors.

Queen's college, was founded by the ſame king's conſort, but finiſhed by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV.

Catharine-hall, founded by Richard Woodlark, in 1475.

Jeſus college, founded by John Alcock, biſhop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII.

Chriſt college was founded about the ſame time, by that king's mother, Margaret, counteſs of Richmond.

St. John's college was founded by the ſame lady.

Magdalen college was founded by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high chancellor, in the reign of Henry VIII.

Trinity college was founded by Henry VIII.

Emanuel college, by Sir Walter Mildmay in 1584.

Sidney college was founded by Thomas Radcliff, earl of Suſſex, in 1588, and had its name from his wife Frances Sidney.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is a moſt elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen thouſand pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a very magnificent ſtructure, and in Corpus Chriſti college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts, which were preſerved at the deſolution of the monaſteries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, and Angle-Normanic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles and two ovals, which are thus compoſed: the upright ſtones are

placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart ſtones, with tenons fitted to the mortiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chiſel, and ſometimes tapered; but the tranſomes, or over-thwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurpriſing and awful effect upon the beholders. After all the deſcriptions of, and diſſertations upon, this celebrated antiquity by ingenious writers, it is not to be denied, that it has given riſe to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the ſubject, down to Stukeley, who on a favourite point of antiquity, ſometimes formed the moſt enthuſiaſtic conjectures. The barrows that are near this monument, were certainly graves of perſons of both ſexes, eminent in peace or war; ſome of them have been opened, and bones, arms, and ancient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the iſles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England, conſiſt chiefly of altars and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pontefract to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, however, be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a noble plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorcheſter in Dorſetſhire, where alſo is a Roman amphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe, that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and teſſelated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles are blended with thoſe of a later date; and it is difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets,

trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with ſtone forts, and turrets at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military highway to the ſouth. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to ſtrike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real ſecurity to the Roman poſſeſſions. In ſome places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly diſcernible; and the latter ſerves as a foundation for a modern work of the ſame kind, carried on at the public expence. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England is among the deſiderata of hiſtory; but perhaps it is too great a deſign for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without viſiting every place, and every object in perſon.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Camden, and later writers, perhaps with reaſon; but if it be not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter ſerved as the burying-place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected together by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity preſent themſelves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be diſcerned from the Normanic; and the Britiſh Muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, ſigned by the king and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Daniſh erections in England are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are ſquare.

All England is full of Anglo-Normanic monuments, which I chuſe to call ſo, becauſe, though the princes under whom they were raiſed were of Norman original, yet the expence was defrayed by Engliſhmen, with Engliſh money. York-minſter, and Weſtminſter-hall and abbey, are perhaps the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals, and old churches in the kingdom, are more or leſs in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's. In ſhort, thoſe erections are ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the name of curioſities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in ſome parts of England, are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That, under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong ſquare hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays, that it was the room in which the barons of England met during their wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft, and very practicable; but it is hard to ſay where the excavation, which is continued

tinued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, terminates, becauſe the work is fallen in, in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, that I can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of deſcribing the ſeveral medicinal waters and ſprings which are to be found in every part of the country. They have been analyſed with great accuracy and care by ſeveral learned naturaliſts, who, as their intereſts or inclinations led them, have not been ſparing in recommending their ſalubrious qualities. England, however, is not ſingular in its medicinal waters; though in ſome countries the diſcovering and examining them is ſcarcely worth while. In England, a much frequented well or ſpring is a certain eſtate to its proprietor. The moſt remarkable of theſe wells have been divided into thoſe for bathing, and thoſe for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somerſetſhire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the ſame kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epſom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Iſlington in Middleſex. There alſo are many remarkable ſprings, whereof ſome are impregnated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſterſhire; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire; and a dropping well in the Weſt-riding of Yorkſhire. And finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in an hour. To theſe we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's caſtle in Herefordſhire, commonly called Bone-well, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well*.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place: this is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the laſt eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-echoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt concave. The drops of water which

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been ſince dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceaſed.

hang

hang from the roof, and on the ſides have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Caſtleton, which is from its hideouſneſs named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who ſeem in a great meaſure to ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſable. The vault, in ſeveral places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured ſtones.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkſhire are found certain ſtones, reſembling the folds and wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, do commonly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire, ſtones are found reſembling cockles, oyſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals. Thoſe curioſities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } This head is ſo very extenſive, that I can only touch upon objects that may aſſiſt in giving the reader ſome idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London *, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and ſoon after became the capital of the iſland. It was firſt walled about with hewn ſtones, and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee, for it appears that the biſhops of London and York, and another Engliſh biſhop were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled a mint in it, as is plain from ſome of his coins.

London, in its large ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of a very ſurpriſing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the moſt extenſive trade. This city when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts ſend their commodities, from whence they are again ſent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are conſtantly em-

* London is ſituated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 miles north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, and 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

ployed

ployed; and from hence ariſes the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head, and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen: witneſs their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch a noble and elgant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river which though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almoſt one continued great magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ſhips for the uſe of the merchants, beſide the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards down the river, for the building men of war. As this city is about ſixty miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſed by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water ſide, and extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of freſh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt, is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth in ſome places three, in others two; and in others again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 miles; or according to a modern meaſurement, the extent of continued buildings, is 35 miles two furlongs and 39 roods. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſide St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, here are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings; 34 preſbyterian meetings; 20 baptiſt meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and 3 Jews ſynagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhes uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodiſt tabernacles.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes, about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public priſons, 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public ſquares, beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and 131 charity-ſchools which provide education for 5034 poor children;

207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes, 5975 alehouſes; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions *.

| | |
|---|---|
| Black cattle | 98,244 |
| Sheep and lambs | 711,123 |
| Calves | 194,760 |
| Swine | 186,932 |
| Pigs | 52,000 |
| Poultry, and wild fowl innumerable | |
| Mackarel ſold at Billingſgate | 14,740,000 |
| Oyſters, buſhels | 115,536 |
| Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh | 1,398 |
| Butter, pounds weight, about | 16,000,000 |
| Cheeſe, ditto, about | 20,000,000 |
| Gallons of milk | 7,000,000 |
| Barrels of ſtrong beer | 1,172,494 |
| Barrels of ſmall beer | 798,495 |
| Tons of foreign wines | 3,044 |
| Gallons of rum, brandy, and other diſtilled waters, above | 11,000,000 |
| Pounds weight of candles, above | 11,000,000 |

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in courſe of time gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſages for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each ſide is a fine balluſtrade of ſtone with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 43 feet, having on each ſide a fine foot-way for paſſengers. It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones, are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000 l. in ſtone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000 l. defrayed by the parliament.

* Neither of the ancient and famous cities of Nineveh, Babylon, and Rome, had ever ſhipping or trade ſufficient to employ ſo many hands, nor were capable of furniſhing proviſions, firing, or other neceſſaries for their ſupport.

Black-

Black-friars-bridge falls nothing ſhort of that of Weſtminſter, either in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many perſons even prefer it to Weſtminſter-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular proteſtant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in ſome reſpects it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Chriſtopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the ſame magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years after he himſelf laid the firſt ſtone. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a millon ſterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen's, Walbrook, is admired for its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for ſuch erection. Few churches in or about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent-Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting-houſe at Whitehall, is but a very ſmall part of a noble palace deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the royal reſidence, and as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry, and ornaments, are in the higheſt ſtyle and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, whoſe roof is not ſupported with pillars, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the fineſt of its kind that can be ſeen. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and

queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above ſtairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation*, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhewing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000l.

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the fineſt proſpects in the world.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower, Bank of England, the New Treaſury, the admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards at Whitehall, the Manſion-houſe, or houſe of the lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, Exciſe-office, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public buildings; beſide the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as lord Spenſer's houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe in St. James's-park; the earl of Cheſterfield's houſe near Hyde park; the duke of Devonſhire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's, in Berkeley-ſquare; Northumberland-houſe in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-houſe†, in Bloomſbury; with a number of others

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Chriſt, 1666, Sept. 2. eaſtward from hence, at the diſtance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out at midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only waſted the adjacent parts, but alſo very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It conſumed 89 churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public ſtructures, hoſpitals, ſchools, libraries, a vaſt number of ſtately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houſes, and 400 ſtreets. Of the 26 wards it utterly deſtroyed 15, and left eight others ſhattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames ſide to the Temple church; and from the north-eaſt along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the eſtates and fortunes of the citizens it was mercileſs, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things reſemble the laſt conflagration of the world. The deſtruction was ſudden; for in a ſmall ſpace of time the city was ſeen moſt flouriſhing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counſels and endeavours, in the opinion of all, it ſtopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every ſide extinguiſhed."

† The Britiſh Muſeum is depoſited in Montague-houſe. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; for its being eſtabliſhed by parliament, was only in conſequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural hiſtory, his large library, and his numerous curioſities, which coſt him 50,000l. to the uſe of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library

others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water as been attended with another advantage, it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is small, and the recovery in case of loss, is easy and certain. Every one of these offices keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though all their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

If the use and advantage of public magnificence is considered as a national concern, it will be found to be of the utmost consequence, in promoting the welfare of mankind, as that attention to it, which encouragement will produce, must necessarily stimulate the powers of invention and ingenuity, and of course create employment for great numbers of artists, who, exclusive of the reward of their abilities, cannot fail of striking out many things which will do honour to themselves, and to their country. This consideration alone, is without doubt highly worthy of a commercial people: it is this which gives the preference to one country, in comparison with another, and it is this which distinguishes the genius of a people in the most striking manner.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like most other great cities, had arisen from small beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded

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brary, the Harleian manuscripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agate, jasper, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Crystal, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Tales, micæ, &c. 358. Corals, spunges, &c. 2,421. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ. &c. 659. Asteriæitrochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustaceæ, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and the nests of different species, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city ſeldom free from peſtilential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of conſequences, which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means anſwered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented (ſuch was the infatuation of thoſe times) that the magnificent, elegant, and uſeful plan of the great ſir Chriſtopher Wren, was totally diſregarded and ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property. Views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted, muſt have been the reſult; the metropolis of this kingdom would inconteſtably have been the moſt magnificent and elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt, from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction and taſte who would have viſited it, have become an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and moſt powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition as can eaſily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the border of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the ſtreets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are alſo circumſtances that greatly leſſen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewiſe thruſt up in corners in ſuch a manner, as might tempt foreigners to believe, that they were deſigned to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for ſome years paſt, have however been very great; and the new ſtreets, which are numerous, are in general more ſpacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the nobleſt river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant, ruinous houſes, known by the names of Durham-Yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet Houſe. The firſt, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of ſcenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the ſite of Durham-Yard was raiſed upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſubterraneous apartments anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuiſance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, ſtood Somerſet-Houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and ſculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumſtances have hitherto been diſadvantageous to the embelliſhment of the metropolis, it muſt at the ſame time be acknowledged, that a ſpirit of improvement ſeems univerſal amongſt all degrees of people. The very elegant and neceſſary method of paving and enlightening the ſtreets, is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles around upon the ſame model; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide, at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchmen ſtationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, Oxford-ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among the liſt of improvements worthy notice, may be included the Six Clerks Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very ſubſtantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanlineſs, and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid ſounds iſſuing from the lips of thoſe wretched beings, who ſet defiance to all laws divine and human; and here alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Foreigners have been puzzled to account how it happens, that the monarchs of the richeſt nation in Europe ſhould be ſo indifferently lodged; eſpecially as Charles I. whoſe finances were but low, compared to ſome of his ſucceſſors, had he lived undiſturbed, would more than probably have completed the auguſt plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, and which would have been every way ſuitable to the dignity of an Engliſh monarch. The truth is, his ſon Charles II. though he had a fine taſte for architecture, diſſipated his revenues upon his pleaſures. The reign of his brother was too ſhort for ſuch an undertaking. Perpetual wars during the reigns of king William and queen Anne, left the parliament no money to ſpare for a palace. The two ſucceeding monarchs were indifferent as to ſuch a piece of grandeur in England; and though ſeveral ſchemes were drawn up for that purpoſe, yet they came to nothing, eſpecially as three millions of money were neceſſary for carrying it into execution.

Windſor caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation; which, with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton-court was the favourite reſidence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames. Both theſe palaces have ſome good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for deſign and expreſſion are reckoned the maſter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the Queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of royal.

Next to theſe, if not ſuperior, in magnificence and expenſive decorations, are many private ſeats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over

over the kingdom, wherein the amazing opulence of the Engliſh nation ſhines forth in its fulleſt point of view. Herein alſo the princely fortunes of the nobility are made ſubſervient to the fineſt claſſical taſte; witneſs the ſeats of earl Temple and earl Pembroke. At the ſeat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſſeſſion of any other ſubject in the world.

But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens, that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat, which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations. Viſtas, opening landſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence. Of which the following are the moſt diſtinguiſhed, viz.

The earl of Pembroke's, at Wilton, in Wiltſhire.
Lord Clifford's, King's-Weſton, Glouceſterſhire.
Duke of Beaufort's, Badmington-Magna, ditto.
Earl Spencer's, Wimbledon, Surry.
The late ſir Gregory Page's, Blackheath, Kent.
The late earl Tilney's, Epping Foreſt, Eſſex.
Duke of Grafton's, Euſton Hall, Suffolk.
Earl of Orford's, Houghton, Norfolk.
Duke of Marlborough's, Blenheim, Oxfordſhire.
Earl of Litchfield's, Ditchley, ditto.
Earl Temple's, Stowe, Buckinghamſhire.
Earl of Bute's, Luton Hoo, Bedfordſhire.
Earl of Winchelſea's, Okeham, Rutlandſhire.
Earl of Stafford's, Broughton, Northamptonſhire.
Earl of Pomfret's, Eaſton, ditto.
Earl Spencer's, Althorp, ditto.
Earl of Exeter, Stamford, ditto.
Duke of Norfolk's, Worksop, Nottinghamſhire.
Duke of Devonſhire's, Chatſworth, Derbyſhire.
Lord Scarſdale's, near Derby.
Mr. Aiſlabie's, Studley Park, Yorkſhire.
Earl of Carliſle's, at Caſtle-Howard, ditto.
Duke of Northumberland's, at Alnwick, Northumberland, and Sion-Houſe, Middleſex.
Lord Clive's, Claremont, Surry.
Earl of Inchiquin's, Cliefden-houſe, Buckinghamſhire.
Earl of Harrington's, at Peterſham, Surry.
The late counteſs of Leiceſter's, Holkham-Houſe, Norfolk.
Lord Deſpencer's, Mereworth Caſtle, Kent.
Lord Edgecumbe's, Mount Edgecumbe, Cornwall.
Lord Byron's, Newſtead Abbey, Nottinghamſhire.
Mr. Hoare's, Stourton Park, Wiltſhire.
The late Marquis of Rockingham's, Wentworth Houſe, Yorkſhire.
Lord Petre's, Thornton, Eſſex.

It cannot be expected that I ſhould here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of

this work: I ſhall, therefore, only touch upon ſome of the moſt conſiderable.

Briſtol is reckoned the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions for trade, wealth, and the number of inhabitants. It ſtands upon the north and ſouth ſides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a ſtone bridge. The city is not well built; but it is ſuppoſed to contain 15,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen pariſh churches, beſides ſeven or eight other places of worſhip. On the north ſide of a large ſquare, called Queen's ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of William the Third, there is a cuſtom-houſe, with a quay half a mile in length, ſaid to be one of the moſt commodious in England, for ſhipping and landing of merchants goods. The exchange, wherein the merchants and traders meet, is all of free ſtone, and is one of the beſt of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ouſe; it is very populous, and ſurrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five poſterns. Here are ſeventeen pariſh-churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minſter, it being one of the fineſt Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largeſt of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the weſt end are two towers, connected and ſupported by an arch, which forms the weſt entrance, and is reckoned the largeſt Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with ſtatues of all the kings of England from William the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two ſtalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each conſiſting of one piece of alabaſter. Here is alſo a very neat Gothic chapter houſe. Near the cathedral is the aſſembly-houſe, which is a noble ſtructure, and which was deſigned by the late earl of Burlington. This city has a ſtone bridge of five arches over the river Ouſe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt-Saxon kings; and the walls which at this time encloſe it, were built by king Athelſtan, who encompaſſed it alſo with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent and the number of its inhabitants. It has ſix gates, and, including its ſuburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are ſixteen pariſh churches, beſides chapels, and five large meeting-houſes, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter in ſerges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerſeys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to the city by means of ſluices. There was a long and very ancient bridge over the river Ex, with houſes on both ſides, except in the middle, but now is about one half taken down, and an arm turned to join it to the ſtately new bridge built on a line with the fore-ſtreet.

The city of Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes on every deſcent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on one ſide, a branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent ſtructure, and there are alſo five pariſh churches. Here is a good ſtone bridge over the river, beſides a quay, a wharf, and a cuſtom houſe: but the trade of this city is much leſs conſiderable than it was formerly.

Litchfield ſtands in a valley, three miles ſouth of the Trent, and is divided by a ſtream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was ſo completely repaired ſoon after the Reſtoration, that it is now one of the nobleſt Gothic ſtructures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the moſt conſiderable city in the north-weſt of England, except Cheſter.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the ſea. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churches. The ſtreets are generally even and ſpacious, and croſſing one another in ſtraight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were firſt erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the ſouth ſide of the city to the caſtle, from whence there is a pleaſant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by ſome of the towers over the gates; and from hence there is a proſpect of Flintſhire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of free-ſtone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rock from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and the ſtreets are ſpacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town. The principal ornament of the place is a caſtle belonging to the earl of Warwick, ſtanding upon the banks of the Avon, on a rock which riſes 40 feet perpendicularly above the level of that river; and adjoining to the caſtle is a fine terrace, 50 feet above the ſame level, from whence there is a beautiful and extenſive proſpect of the river, and of the country beyond it. The apartments of the caſtle are adorned with many original pictures of Vandyke, and other great maſters.

The city of Coventry is large and populous: it has a handſome town-houſe, and twelve noble gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market-place, with a croſs in the middle, 60 feet high, which is adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral kings of England, as large as the life.

Saliſbury is a large, neat, and well-built city; ſituated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne on the eaſt. The ſtreets are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finiſhed in 1258, at the expence of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lanthorn, with a beautiful ſpire of free-ſtone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the talleſt in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. This church has a cloiſter, which is 150 feet ſquare, and of as fine workmanſhip as any in England. The chapter-houſe, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too weak in appearance for the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that the conſtruction of this building is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The ſeaſons for drinking the Bath waters are the ſpring and autumn: the ſpring ſeaſon begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn ſeaſon begins with September and laſts with December, and ſome

patients remain here all the winter. In the ſpring, this place is moſt frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleaſure, when at leaſt two thirds of the company, conſiſting chiefly of perſons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amuſements of the place. In ſome ſeaſons there have been no leſs than 8000 perſons at Bath, beſides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, and the Circus.

Nottingham is pleaſantly ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and has been made navigable. It is one of the neateſt places in England, and has a conſiderable trade.

No nation in the world can ſhew ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniences for the conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England), Plymouth (by far the beſt dock-yard), Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hoſpital at Greenwich, for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence. In ſhort, every town in England is noted for ſome particular production or manufacture, to which its building and appearance are generally fitted; and though England contains many excellent and commodious ſea-ports, yet all of them have an immediate connection with London, which is the common centre of national commerce.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is copious, and has been well diſcuſſed in former publications, many of which are maſterpieces in their kind. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be the firſt and moſt powerful people in the world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade. The Eaſt India company owes to him their ſucceſs and exiſtence, and Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increaſed. It is not within our deſign to follow commerce through all her fluctuations and ſtates. This would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a geographical work requires only a repreſentation of the preſent ſtate of commerce in every country; and, in this light, I flatter myſelf that I ſhall be able to treat of it with more preciſion than former writers upon the ſame ſubject.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the Popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly diſcovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter of the ſhips of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raiſed at a vaſt expence for the conqueſt of England, was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their maſters; they therefore revolted, and after a ſtruggle, in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes of future proſperity, they eaſily perceived that as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power, which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by tranſportation of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce, which was for many years proſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impaſſable bogs erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

In the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, which ſeems to be the period deſtined for the change of the face of Europe, France began firſt to riſe into power, and, from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating ſucceſs, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devaſtations. Henry IV. having, after a long ſtruggle, obtained the crown, found it eaſy to govern nobles, exhauſted and wearied by a long civil war; and having compoſed the diſputes between the Proteſtants and Papiſts, ſo as to obtain, at leaſt, a truce for both parties, was at leiſure to accumulate treaſure, and raiſe forces, which he propoſed to have employed in a deſign of ſettling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great ſcheme he lived not to ſee the vanity, or feel the diſappointment; for he was murdered in the midſt of his mighty preparations.

The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power; and the great deſigns of a king, whoſe wiſdom they had ſo long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual experiment, diſpoſed them to conſider themſelves as maſters of the deſtiny of their neighbours; and from that time he who ſhall nicely examine their ſchemes and conduct, will find that they began to take an air of ſuperiority to which they had never pretended before; and that they have been always employed, more or leſs openly, in ſchemes of dominion, though with frequent interruptions from domeſtic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000l. a year; at the Reſtoration they were let to farm for 400,000l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconſiderable, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days, we had not only naval ſtores, but ſhips from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metals, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things, came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugars: all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt Indies at their own price. In ſhort, the legal intereſt of money was twelve per cent. and the common price of our land ten or twelve years purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall, and our ſhipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies.

Such was the ſtate of our trade when this great princeſs came to the throne; but, as we have already obſerved, the limits of our undertaking do not permit us to give a detail of the gradual progreſs of commerce ſince that reign: we flatter ourſelves, however, that the Britiſh reader will not be diſpleaſed with the following view of our extenſive trade, at preſent carried on through the various nations of the globe.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign veſſels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible, is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſehold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to enu-

merate

merate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great eſteem. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective. In thoſe of lace and paper we do not ſeem to excel, though they are greatly advancing; we import much more than we ſhould, if the duties on Britiſh paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is ſtill the great foundation and ſupport of it.

The American colonies are the objects which would naturally have firſt preſented themſelves, before the unhappy conteſt between them and the mother-country commenced; but as a ſeparation hath taken place, and no commercial treaty as yet eſtabliſhed, little can be now ſaid of the trade between Great Britain and America. However, to keep in remembrance what our trade was, as well as to ſhew what it might have been, had wiſer men preſided at the helm, and avoided the conteſt, I ſhall treat of the colonies in this place, nearly in the ſame manner as would have been done before the war broke out. And conſidering them in this view, they may be divided into two claſſes; poſſeſſions on the continent, and thoſe in the iſlands which go under the name of the Weſt Indies.

I ſhall rank the poſſeſſions in North-America, under the heads of the following colonies, viz. Hudſon's Bay, Labrador, Newfoundland, Canada, Nova-Scotia, New-England, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, New-Hampſhire, New-York, Pennſylvania, Maryland, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt Florida. The chief commodities exported from Great Britain to thoſe colonies, were wrought iron, ſteel, copper, pewter, lead and braſs, cordage, hemp, ſail-cloth, ſhip-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hoſiery, haberdaſhery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, ſtuffs, flannels, Colcheſter bays, long ells, ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, Mancheſter goods, Britiſh, foreign, and Iriſh linens, earthern wares, grind-ſtones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, ſadlery, cabinet-wares, ſeeds, cheeſe, ſtrong beer, ſmoking pipes, ſnuffs, wines, ſpirits, and drugs; Eaſt India goods, books, paper, leather, beſides many other articles, according to the different wants and exigencies of the different colonies, impoſſible to be enumerated here.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, were tobacco, rice, flour, biſcuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; ſalt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, veniſon, tongues, butter, and cheeſe; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fiſh, and fiſh oil; furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, ſuch as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horſes, and live ſtock; timber planks, maſts, boards, ſtaves, ſhingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ſhips built for ſale; flax, flax-ſeed, and cotton; indigo, pot-aſh, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; beſides many other commodities, peculiar to the climes and ſoil of different provinces. The following is a ſtate of the trade between Great Britain and the colonies, as it exiſted before the differences broke out between them, marking at the ſame time the commercial ſtrength and ſhipping of the colonies.

Colo-

| Colonies. | Ships. | Seamen. | Exports from Great Britain. | Exports from the Colonies. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hudſon's Bay — — | 4 | 130 | £. 16,000 | £. 29,340 |
| Labrador American veſſels 120 — — | | | | 49,050 |
| Newfoundland (3000 boats) | 380 | 20,560 | 273,400 | 345,000 |
| Canada — — | 34 | 408 | 105,000 | 105,000 |
| Nova Scotia — — | 6 | 72 | 26,500 | 38,000 |
| New England — — | 46 | 552 | 395,000 | 370,500 |
| Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, and New Hampſhire | 3 | 36 | 12,000 | 114,500 |
| New York — — | 30 | 330 | 531,000 | 526,000 |
| Penſylvania — — | 35 | 390 | 611,000 | 705,500 |
| Virginia and Maryland — | 330 | 3,960 | 865,000 | 1,040,000 |
| North Carolina — | 34 | 408 | 18,000 | 68,450 |
| South Carolina — — | 140 | 1,680 | 365,000 | 395,666 |
| Georgia — — | 24 | 240 | 49,000 | 74,200 |
| Eaſt Florida — — | 2 | 24 | 7,000 | |
| Weſt ditto — — | 10 | 120 | 97,000 | 63,000 |
| | 1,078 | 28,910 | 3,370,900 | 3,924,606 |

The principal iſlands belonging to the Engliſh in the Weſt Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montſerrat, the Bermudas or Summer Iſlands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean.

The Engliſh trade with their Weſt India iſlands conſiſts chiefly in ſugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs and preſerves; for theſe the exports from England are oſnabrugs, a coarſe kind of linen, with which the Weſt Indians now clothe their ſlaves; linen of all ſorts, with broad cloth and kerſies, for the planters, their overſeers and families; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies and houſehold ſervants; hats; red caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; gloves and millinery ware, and perukes, laces for linen, woollen, and ſilks; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed or manufactured in Great Britain; alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the hiſtory of the Eaſt India trade, within theſe twenty years paſt, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, beſides their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under certain reſtrictions by act of parliament; they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, and the ambition or avarice of their ſervants and officers, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as render them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen by the proprietors

proprietors of the ſtock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and a half ſterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great; but after theſe are defrayed, the company not only cleared a vaſt ſum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thouſand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial, and not commercial. This republic therefore cannot be ſaid to be independent; and it is hard to ſay what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years paſt, the company's ſervants abroad have enriched and ſerved themſelves more than the company or the public.

This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw-ſilks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, ſalt-petre for home conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I ſhall now proceed to a conciſe view of the Engliſh trade to other countries, according to the lateſt and moſt authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England ſends in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdegris, ſpices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annually, in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh.

England exports to Italy, woollen good of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury; the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000l.

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron, and braſs manufactures; haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany, and elſewhere, for the American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal formerly was upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. Of late, her miniſtry have changed their ſyſtem, and have partly fallen in with the views of the houſe of Bourbon. They have eſtabliſhed courts, which are inconſiſtent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the Engliſh merchants of great part of their capitals, which they find it impoſſible to recover. They have likewiſe erected two Brazil companies; the one for Marenham and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco, greatly to the detriment of the Engliſh rights, but to their own national advantage. Before theſe events took place, the Engliſh trade to Portugal was highly beneficial. England ſent to that country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandiſes as to Spain, and

and they received in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coin.

To France, in time of peace, England ſends much tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and ſometimes corn; and always much honey at the long-run; and brings home in a ſmuggling way, a much greater value in wines, brandies, brocades, linen, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other prohibited fopperies; always very conſiderably to England's diſadvantage. But as there is no commercial treaty ſubſiſting between England and France, and hath not even in time of peace, England's juſt loſs cannot be aſcertained.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance 250,000l. ſterling yearly. To Germany, England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandiſe; and brings thence vaſt quantities of linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers for all uſes, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually, to the prejudice of England, but that ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the German princes find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England; but the balance was lately vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are ſent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland conſumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hard ware, lead, tin, ſalt, ſea coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be eſtimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandiſe; ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt India, and Turkey commodities, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes returns in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whale-bone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in favour of England.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their ſettlement at Senegal, opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in poſſeſſion of Senegal, traded there for gold, ſlaves, hides, oſtrich feathers, bees wax, millet, ambergris, and above all, for that uſeful commodity gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to France by the late treaty of peace. At preſent, England ſends to the coaſt of Guinea, ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glaſs manufactures. And, beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately ſupplied the American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England, ſends much foreign ſilver coin and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chintz; teas, porcelain, gold-duſt, coffee, ſalt-petre, and many other drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe various merchandiſes are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compenſates for all the ſilver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt India, South Sea, Hudſon's Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither, muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſe of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at ſeven millions ſterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported; ſo that, if this calculation be true, England gains, annually three millions ſterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the moſt experienced merchants, and ableſt calculators, differ. After all that has been ſaid, it muſt be acknowledged, that many exceptions lie to particular eſtimates. The vaſt improvements at home, in iron, ſilk, linen, and other manufactures, and the imports from America, muſt greatly diminiſh the Engliſh imports from abroad. On the other hand, ſome of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the Engliſh manufactures. With what ſucceſs they may be attended, time alone can determine.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and ſilver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa, but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

We ſhall conclude this account of our trade, with the following comparative view of ſhipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uſes.

If the ſhipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

| | |
|---|---|
| Great-Britain, &c. is computed to have | 6 |
| The United Provinces | 6 |
| Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia | 2 |
| The trading cities of Germany, and the Auſtrian Netherlands | 1 |
| France | 2 |
| Spain and Portugal | 2 |
| Italy, and the reſt of Europe | 1 |

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned in the above

above account, are fabricated: a few general ſtrictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol, is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs bottle, and drinking-glaſs, are alone occupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Vaſt manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular), are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges, and alſo Exeter for ſerges, and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camelets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt, and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals, and all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Mancheſter; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. I might mention here many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome particular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I muſt not however diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and conſequently are a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper, which till very lately, was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a moſt neceſſary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by ſir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt India company: the ſucceſs of ſuch an undertaking would be of immenſe benefit, as well as ſecurity to the nation.

After all that has been ſaid on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always

ways follow thoſe places where living is cheap, and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon, they have been obſerved of late to remove towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations, which are opening in many parts of England, will make vaſt alterations as to its internal ſtate.

*A ſhort View of the* STOCKS, *or Public Funds in England, with an hiſtorical Account of the Eaſt India, the Bank, and the South Sea Companies.*

As there are few ſubjects of converſation more general than the value of ſtock, and hardly any thing ſo little underſtood, nothing can be more uſeful than a ſhort account of them, which we ſhall here give in as clear and concite a manner as poſſible; preſenting our readers with the rationale of the ſtocks, and a ſhort hiſtory of the ſeveral companies, deſcribing the nature of their ſeveral funds, the uſes to which they are applied, and the various purpoſes they anſwer, both with reſpect to the government, the companies themſelves, and the community in general.

In order to give a clear idea of the money tranſactions of the ſeveral companies, it is proper we ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general, and particularly of paper money, and the difference between that and the current ſpecie. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life, and paper money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in its always being ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever required. This is exactly the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The method of depoſiting money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes, (though they bear no intereſt), is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only ſafer than money in the hands of the owner himſelf, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more eaſy conveyance: ſince a bank note for a very large ſum may be ſent by the poſt, and to prevent the deſigns of robbers, may without damage, be cut in two, and ſent at two ſeveral times. Or bills, called Bank poſt-bills, may be had by application at the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent loſſes by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight; which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the Bank, if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negociated by ſtrangers as common Bank-notes are: and whoever conſiders the hazard, the expence, and trouble there would be in ſending large ſums of gold and ſilver to and from diſtant places, muſt alſo conſider this as a very ſingular advantage. Beſides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are deſtroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them.

*Bank*

*Bank notes* differ from all kinds of ſtock in theſe three particulars; 1. They are always of the ſame value. 2. they are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no intereſt; while *ſtocks* are a ſhare in a company's fund, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India bonds* indeed (by ſome perſons, though erroneouſly, denominated ſtock) are to be accepted, they being made payable at ſix months notice, either on the ſide of the company, or of the poſſeſſor.

By the word STOCK was originally meant, a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the perſon became a partner in that trade, and received a ſhare in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain intereſt till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the ſecurity both of the government and the public companies is eſteemed preferable to that of any private perſon; as the ſtocks are negociable and may be ſold at any time; and as the intereſt is always punctually paid when due; ſo they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower intereſt than what might be obtained from lending it to private perſons, where there is often ſome danger of loſing both principal and intereſt.

But as every capital ſtock or fund of a company is raiſed for a particular purpoſe, and limited by government to a certain ſum, it neceſſarily follows, that when that fund is completed, no ſtock can be bought of the company; though ſhares, already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling, will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf; and on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations may ſerve to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called *Stock-jobbing*, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock; againſt which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by ſpreading rumours, and fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell it, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange Alley, the buyer is in this caſe called the Bull, and the

the ſeller the Bear; one is for raiſing or toſſing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the the Stock.

Beſides theſe, there is another ſet of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. Theſe indeed are not fictitious, but really buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the forementioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other like practices, they are enabled to raiſe or fall the ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum; and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe the Eaſt India company takes the lead; and we have already given ſome account of it as being the capital commercial object in England. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has ſince admitted of vaſt alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling; and its capital only 369,891l. 5s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, and conſequently, each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be found to be 1,703,402l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by Sir Joſiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the people to ſupport it; ſo that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public ſpirited meaſures of king William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of vaſt difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vaſt intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without any additional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies." Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade; and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 500l. formerly had, but now of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, ſix a year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſe, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-ſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed to be 282,000 ſquare miles, and containing thirty millions of people, muſt be neceſſarily attended with a proportionable increaſe of trade*; and this, joined to the diſſenſions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction has

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* According to liſts laid before the Houſe of Commons, the Company employed 110 ſhips and 8170 men.

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|---|---|---|
| Between India and Europe in carrying cargoes to and from, | 70 ſhips | and 7130 men. |
| In the country trade and from China, | 6 Packets | 320 |
| | 34 Grabs | 720 occaſionally |

occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the laſt mentioned period it appeared, that beſides to the above dividend, the capital ſtock of the company had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable alterations were made in the affairs and conſtitution of the Eaſt India company by an act paſſed in 1773, intitled, "An act for eſtabliſhing certain "rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the "Eaſt India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors ſhould, in future, be elected for four years: ſix members annually; but none to hold their ſeats longer than four years. That no perſon ſhould vote at the election of the directors, who had not poſſeſſed their ſtock twelve months. That the ſtock of qualification ſhould, inſtead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be a 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta ſhould for the future be confined to ſmall mercantile cauſes, to which only its juriſdiction extended before the territorial acquiſition. That in lieu of this court thus taken away, a new one be eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice and three puiſne judges; and that theſe judges be appointed by the crown. That a ſuperiority be given to the preſidency of Bengal, over the other preſidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal ſhould be veſted in the crown. The ſalaries of the judges were alſo fixed, at 8000l. to the chief juſtice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the firſt at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immenſe power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto reſulted to the company: on the contrary, the new eſtabliſhed court of juſtice has paid ſo little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the uſages of that country, as to occaſion the moſt alarming diſcontents among the natives, and great diſſatisfaction even among the company's own ſervants.

In the month of November 1783, Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company under the ſuppoſition of the incompetency of the directors, and the preſent inſolvent ſtate of the company. The intention of the bill was, to veſt the whole powers of the Eaſt India company in *ſeven directors*, whoſe names were moved by the ſecretary of ſtate, and adopted by the houſe of commons. They were to hold their offices four years, removeable, like the twelve judges, by an addreſs of either houſe of parliament, and not by any other power: and for managing the commercial affairs of the company, *nine gentlemen*, moved for and adopted in the ſame manner, were to aſſiſt them, ſubject to their control, and removeable by them.

The effect of this was, to veſt in theſe ſeven directors the whole influence of the offices of every kind in India, and at home, belonging to the company; and the whole influence ariſing from the tranſactions of their trade in the purchaſe of goods for exportation, furniſhing ſhipping, ſtores, and recruits; the influence ariſing from the method of ſelling their goods, by bringing forward or keeping back goods at the ſales, or giving indulgencies as to payments, ſo as to accommodate thoſe who are meant to be favoured; the influence ariſing from the favour they may ſhew to

thoſe who are now in England, and have left debts or effects in India, as to the mode of bringing home and recovering their fortunes; the influence of contracts of all kinds in India; of promotions, from ſtep to ſtep; of favour in the inland trade; of intimidation with reſpect to every perſon now there, who may come home with a fortune, both with regard to recovering his debts, and the means of remittance, and with regard to enquiries into his conduct; the influence upon foreign companies, or foreign ſtates, who have eſtabliſhments in that country,—who, in return, may have the means of acting upon individuals in this country; the influence upon the native princes of India, ſome of whom have already found the way of procuring the elections of members of parliament; and many other means of influence, which it is impoſſible to foreſee, or to trace.

The amount of the whole cannot be computed. It has been called equalto two or three millions a year; but there can be no doubt that its magnitude is very great and extenſive indeed, and that it might have produced very remarkable conſequences.

This power was not, indeed, taken from the crown; but it was to be placed in new hands, independent during four years equally of the crown and of the people. Theſe conſequences were ſuppoſed neceſſarily to follow, that the whole power and patronage of India would be veſted in the members of that preſent adminiſtration, not only during four years, but as long as India ſhall belong to this kingdom, and without any fear from a future parliament. The bill paſſed the commons, but it ſeems by the ſecret influence of the crown, an oppoſition was formed againſt it in the houſe of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be ſure to operate againſt the neceſſary power of the crown; and after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of nineteen peers. The conſequence of this, was the downfall of the miniſtry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

Various attempts for a new bill were afterwards made by Mr. Pitt and the new miniſtry, but failed, which occaſioned, with other diſputes on privilege, a diſſolution of the houſe of commons. The preſent parliament and adminiſtration of 1784, ſeem diſpoſed to be friendly to the company, whoſe intereſts have been greatly injured by their ſervants at home and abroad. The nabobs and rajahs and natives of India have been by turns haraſſed and deſpoiled under their management, and many parts of that fine country depopulated. The company's governors abroad have guards of ſoldiers, and live in all the ſtate of ſovereign princes.

By the new bill which paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions, 1784, three things were intended.

Firſt, the eſtabliſhing a power of control, in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire.

Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall, nevertheleſs, continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the country.

Accordingly, ſix perſons are to be nominated by the king as commiſſioners for the affairs of India, of which one of the ſecretaries of ſtate and the chancellor of the Exchequer for the time being, ſhall be two, and the preſident is to have the caſting vote, if equally divided. New commiſſioners to be appointed at the pleaſure of the crown. This board is

is to ſuperintend, direct, and control all acts, operations, and concerns which in any wiſe relate to the civil or military government or revenues of the Britiſh-territorial poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies. They are ſworn to execute the ſeveral powers and truſts repoſed in them without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any perſon whatever. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and reſolutions of themſelves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and inſtructions propoſed to be ſent abroad for their approbation or alteration. None to be ſent until after ſuch previous communication on any pretence whatſoever. The directors are ſtill to appoint the ſervants abroad, but the king hath a power by his ſecretary of ſtate to recall either of the governors or members of the councils, or any perſon holding any office under the company in their ſettlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal, a control over the other preſidencies in all points which relate to any tranſactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are ſubjected to the abſolute direction of the company at home, and in all caſes, except thoſe of immediate danger and neceſſity, reſtrained from acting without orders received from hence.

A material part of this bill is directed alſo againſt the abuſes ſaid to have prevailed in the civil and military departments, enjoining a thorough reviſal of their eſtabliſhments; together with a ſuppreſſion of ſuch places as are found to be uſeleſs, and of ſuch expences as may be conveniently avoided. And in order to prevent any deluſive ſhew of retrenchment in the preſent motion, or any deviation from the wiſe ſyſtem of œconomy at a future period, this reform is directed to be conſtantly ſubmitted in its whole ſtate and progreſs, to the eye of parliament.

The laſt body of regulations for the company's ſervants in India, apply to offences committed in that country.

Security has been derived to Indian delinquents, from the circumſtance of their offences being committed within the territories of Indian princes, ſo as not to come within the cogniſance of the Britiſh government. This act provides againſt farther evaſions of this miſchievous nature, by declaring the offence equally puniſhable, in whatever territory of India it is committed. Under the ſpecious name of *Preſents*, the groſſeſt extortion has frequently been cloaked; and all attempts to draw a line having proved nugatory, nothing remained but to put an entire ſtop to the practice. The act, therefore, of receiving preſents, is declared to be in itſelf extortion, and puniſhable by law accordingly. Of the ſame kind with theſe are the regulations againſt diſobedience of orders; for groſs inſtances of which we need not go very far back into their hiſtory: and alſo againſt the bargaining for offices, a miſchievous practice in all countries, but moſt ſo in that, where the means of plunder are great; and conſequently, the more diſhoneſt the men, the higher the prices which they can afford to offer, from the proſpect of reimburſing themſelves by proportionate peculation. Both of theſe offences are accordingly pronounced Miſdemeanors at Law: and proviſion is made, that the guilty perſons ſhall not compound for them with the company, nor ever be reſtored to appointments in their ſervice. Two reſtrictions more remain: one of them binds collectors and receivers by oath, from accepting any private gratuity, over and above the legal tribute; and the other guards againſt illicit correſpondence with the enemies of the company, and of Great Britain.

It is alſo by this bill, lawful for the attorney-general, or court of di-

rectors, to exhibit an information againſt any perſon guilty of the crime of extortion or other miſdemeanors committed in the Eaſt Indies, after the 1ſt of January 1785, which information is to be tried by commiſſioners ſelected from both houſes of parliament. The lords are to ballot for twenty-ſix of their houſe, and the commons for forty of their number; their names are again to be put into a box to be drawn out by lot, in preſence of three judges and of the parties, and the perſon againſt whom the information hath been exhibited ſhall have the liberty to challenge as the names are drawn out, or the firſt four names of the peers, and the firſt ſix of the commons which ſhall be drawn out, without challenging, ſhall be returned by the ſaid judges to the lord chancellor, to inſert their names with thoſe of the three judges in a *ſpecial commiſſion*, for them or any ſeven of them, of whom one of the judges always to be one, to hear and determine every ſuch information, and pronounce judgment thereon; ſuch judgment to be effectual and concluſive to all intents and purpoſes whatſoever.

Various opinions are formed concerning this famous bill; ſome contend that the principle and plan thereof are fair, equitable, and honourable; but the following proteſt was entered againſt it in the houſe of lords, by five peers.

"Becauſe we think the principle of the bill falſe, unjuſt, and unconſtitutional; *falſe*, inaſmuch as it provides no effectual remedy for the evils it affects to cure; *unjuſt*, as it indiſcriminately compels all perſons returning from India to furniſh the means of accuſation and perſecution againſt themſelves; and *unconſtitutional*, becauſe it eſtabliſhes a new criminal court of judicature, in which the admiſſion of incompetent evidence is expreſsly directed, and the ſubject is unneceſſarily deprived of his moſt ineſtimable birth right, a trial by jury."

And notwithſtanding the regulations of this new bill, it is to be ſuſpected that they will produce no very material effect, unleſs vigorous meaſures be taken to enforce them. This bill, like former ones, may be depoſited among the archives of the councils of the governments in the Eaſt Indies to lie in oblivion, or be treated with contempt. Mere parchment chains cannot bind the hands of rapacity and violence. The country is too remote for Britain to interfere on every emergency. The corrupt may be bribed, the timid may be threatened into a deſertion of their duty, while the moſt upright may be overpowered by violence, and, if not ſilenced in that country, be ſent home to this loaded with irons, to plead their cauſe for pretended crimes charged againſt them by the emiſſaries of the powerful delinquents, whoſe peculations and rapacity they endeavoured to repreſs, but whoſe riches will ſecure them a ſafe retreat, and a ſeat in either houſe of parliament.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade, in any goods or merchandiſe; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they

they were impowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted, that Bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal and not a real eſtate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days, and that it ſhould be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the Bank, or any ſealed Bank bill, or any Bank note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

By another act, paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augument their capital to 4,402,343l. and they then advanced 400,000l. more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch a member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion; and alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with the intereſt of 5 per cent. per annum, for the money ſo omitted to be paid: and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the Bank reduced to 1,600,000l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000l. at 3 per cent. which is now called the three per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000,000l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation: the nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation, than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be

made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent, per annum for ſuch ſum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account.

| | |
|---|---|
| The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million — — — | £. 30,000 |
| The Bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more | 6,500 |
| The clear gain to the Bank therefore is — — | 23,500 |

This is the ſtate of the caſe, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of exchange *, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given: when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal †.

* At four per cent. until the year 1773, when it was advanced to five.

† The Bank Company is ſuppoſed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper.

This

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors fo managing the affairs of the company.

The officers and ſervants of his company are very numerous.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets inſtead of money, were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men at a diſcount of 40l. and ſometimes 50l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery, &c."

Though this company ſeem formed for the ſake of commerce, it is certain that the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with Negroes; of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling the company to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common ſeal, on the credit of their capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South-ſea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things

were

were in this ſituation, when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected. The pretended deſign of which was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhewing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; ſome of whom had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed, they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,631,103l. 8s. 1d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which ſhould be converted into a joint-ſtock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the New South Sea annuities, and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums always allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea company. That the accountant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonably divide without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were diſcharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint-ſtock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame

ſtock.

ſtock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The Eaſt India company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million Bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, ſo when a perſon, who is not acquainted with tranſactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, where Bank ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134½, South Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to underſtand, that 100l. of thoſe reſpective ſtocks ſell at ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with another, it muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the time of the laſt payment is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never receives any ſeparate conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India bonds, where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and paid by the purchaſer, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the intereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with them, into conſiderable miſtakes in his computation of their value; ſome always having a quarter's intereſt due in them more than others, which makes an appearance of a conſiderable difference in the price, when, in reality, there is none at all, thus for inſtance, Old South Sea annuities ſell for 85½l. or 85l. 10s. while new South Sea annuities fetch only 84¾l. or 84l. 15s. though each of them produce the ſame annual ſum of 3 per cent; but the old annuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on them than the new annuities, which amount to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two cauſes that will always make one ſpecies of annuities ſell ſomewhat lower than another, though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity, the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

A ſtock may likewiſe be affected by the court of Chancery: for if that court ſhould order the money which is under their direction to be laid out in any particular ſtock, that ſtock, by having more purchaſers, will be raiſed to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been ſaid, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the intereſt of the nation depend on the ſupport of the public funds, of which more particulars hereafter, with a liſt of the amount of the ſeveral capitals, under the article of REVENUES. While the annuities, and intereſt for money advanced, is there regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people (a ſecurity not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be

intereſted

intereſted in our welfare: the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandiſe, and Great Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy: or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſts of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity: for however lovely and engaging honeſty may be in other reſpects, intereſt in money matters will always obtain confidence; becauſe many people pay great regard to their intereſt, who have but little veneration for virtue.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this miſtake; for, by certain checks that operate mutually, and which did not fall within his ideas, the Engliſh conſtitution has continued in its full vigour for above 500 years. It muſt, at the ſame time, be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and ſome interruptions; but its principles are the ſame with thoſe deſcribed by the above mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them; and the whole was conſidered as the common property which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over, under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and thoſe leaders, at laſt, aſſumed the title of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increaſe their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that maſter-piece of judicial polity, the ſubdiviſion of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the ſubdiviſion of hundreds into tythings, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England; and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but by the earlieſt records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay; and here we have the original of Engliſh juries. It is certain that they were in uſe among the earlieſt Saxon colonies, their inſtitution being aſcribed by biſhop Nicholſon to Woden himſelf, their great legiſlator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all thoſe nations which adopted the feodal ſyſtem, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal compoſed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them ſo early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action ſo criminal as not to be compenſated for by money *. A mulct was impoſed in proportion to the guilt, even if it was murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it, he purchaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ceaſed ſoon after the Saxons were converted to Chriſtianity; and caſes of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, hereditary, though in fact, it came to be rendered ſo through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſerving the regularity of government. Even eſtates and honours were not ſtrictly hereditary, till they were made ſo by William the Norman.

That prince, though he made conſiderable innovations in the Engliſh conſtitution, and is generally ſtyled the Conqueror, in conſequence of the victory which he obtained over Harold at the battle of Haſtings, yet before he aſcended the throne he made a compact with his new ſubjects, by his coronation oath, the ſame with that of the Saxon kings. His adminiſtration was however, tyrannical in a very great degree, and he was guilty of many acts of violence and cruelty; but the conſtitution eſtabliſhed under him in this kingdom was no abſolute monarchy, rather an ingraftment of the feudal tenures and other cuſtoms of Normandy upon the ancient Saxon laws of Edward the Confeſſor. He more than once ſwore to maintain thoſe laws; and in the fourth year of his reign confirmed them in parliament: yet not without great alterations, to which the whole legiſlature agreed, by a more complete introduction of the ſtrict feudal law, as it was practiſed in Normandy; which produced a different political ſyſtem, and changed both power and property in many reſpects; though the firſt principles of that law, and general notions of it, had been in uſe among the Engliſh ſome ages before. It muſt, indeed, be admitted, that William divided many of the Engliſh eſtates among his Norman followers, under pretence that their former owners had fought againſt him at the battle of Haſtings: and he partitioned out the lands into knights fees, an indetermined number of which formed a barony, and thoſe baronies were given to the great noblemen who compoſed what is called the King's court, or court of Peers, from every baron being a peer, or equal to another. In this court, all civil as well as military matters, and the proportions of knights and men, which each baron was to raiſe for the king's ſervice, were ſettled. Even biſhopricks were converted into lay baronies, and were obliged, as others, to furniſh their quotas. In many reſpects, the firſt princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon conſtitution; but the attempt was to no purpoſe. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints againſt the crown, and, after much war and bloodſhed, the famous charter of Engliſh liberties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſon Henry III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been ſpilt, the commons of England were

* Called by the Saxons GUELT, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

repreſented

repreſented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed to themſelves the diſpoſal of property.

The preciſe year when the houſe of commons was formed is not known; but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecific powers *. We therefore now proceed to deſcribe the CONSTITUTION as it ſtands at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland, is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king or queen; for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon intitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately entruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf; but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed, or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being transferred from the houſe of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen; whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the ſixth of Scotland, and of England the firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centred all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman invaſion downward; he being indiſputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the Norman invaſion till his acceſſion. For Margaret the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the Conqueſt, reſided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon

* Judge Blackſtone maintains, that a great or general council of the realm hath been held immemorial under the ſeveral names of *michel-ſyneth*, or great council; *michel-gemote*, or great-meeting; and more frequently *wittena-gemote*, or the meeting of wiſe men. It was alſo ſtyled in Latin *commune concilium regni*, and ſometimes *communitas regni Angliæ*. We have inſtances of its meeting to order the affairs of the kingdom, to make new laws and amend the old, ſo early as the reign of Ina king of the Weſt Saxons, about A. D. 725, of Offa king of the Mercians, and Ethelbert king of Kent, in their ſeveral realms of the heptarchy. The MIRROUR informs us, that king Alfred ordained for a perpetual uſage, that theſe councils ſhould meet twice a year, or oftener, if need be. Our ſucceeding Saxon and Daniſh monarchs held frequent councils of this ſort, as appears from their reſpective codes of laws. There is alſo no doubt, but theſe great councils were held regularly under the firſt princes of the Norman line, for in Edward the Third's time, an act of parliament made in the reign of William the Conqueror, was pleaded in the caſe of the Abbey of St. Edmundſbury, and judicially allowed by the court.

line.

line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared that the miſconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacacant.

In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference, to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being proteſtants; and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend *.

The

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* A chronology of Engliſh KINGS, ſince the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the iſland, the Saxons and Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

| Began to reign. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 800 | Egbert | Saxon Princes. |
| 838 | Ethelwulf | |
| 857 | Ethelbald | |
| 860 | Ethelbert | |
| 866 | Ethelred | |
| 871 | Alfred the Great | |
| 901 | Edward the Elder | |
| 925 | Athelſtan | |
| 941 | Edmund | |
| 946 | Edred | |
| 955 | Edwy | |
| 959 | Edgar | |
| 975 | Edward the Martyr | |
| 978 | Ethelred II. | |
| 1016 | Edmund II. or Ironſide | |
| 1017 | Canute king of Denmark | Daniſh. |
| 1035 | Harold | |
| 1039 | Hardicanute | |
| 1041 | Edward the Confeſſor | Saxon. |
| 1065 | Harold | |
| 1066 | William I. | (Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy. |
| 1087 | William II. | Sons of the Conqueror. |
| 1100 | Henry I. | |
| 1135 | Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela. | |

1154 Henry

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeaſance of the right of ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houſes of parliament: it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of Jeſuits, and other wicked perſons, having violated the fundamental laws; and having withdrawn

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| Began to reign. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1154 | Henry II. | (Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud, and her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet. |
| 1189 | Richard I. | Sons of Henry II. |
| 1199 | John | |
| 1216 | Henry III. | ſon of John. |
| 1272 | Edward I. | ſon of Henry III. |
| 1307 | Edward II. | ſon of Edward I. |
| 1327 | Edward III. | ſon of Edward II. |
| 1377 | Richard II. | grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon the Black Prince. |
| 1399 | Henry IV. | Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, 4th ſon to Edward III. — Houſe of Lancaſter. |
| 1413 | Henry V. | ſon of Henry IV. |
| 1422. | Henry VI | ſon of Henry V. |
| 1461 | Edward IV. | deſcended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d ſon. — Houſe of York. |
| 1483 | Edward V. | ſon of Edward IV. |
| 1483 | Richard III. | brother of Edward IV. |
| 1485 | Henry VII. | (Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the houſe of Lancaſter. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth daughter of Edward IV. |
| 1509 | Henry VIII. | ſon of Henry VII. |
| 1547 | Edward VI. | ſon of Henry VIII |
| 1553 | Mary | Daughters of Henry VIII. |
| 1558 | Elizabeth | |
| 1603 | James I. | Great Grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England. |
| 1625 | Charles I. | ſon of James I. |

Commonwealth, and protectorate of Cromwell.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1649 | Charles II | Sons of Charles I. |
| 1685 | James II. | |
| 1688 | William III. and Mary | nephew and ſon-i-law of James II. Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Proteſtant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles, who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament, expreſly made in favour of his mother. |
| 1702 | Anne | |
| 1714 | George I. | Houſe of Hanover. |
| 1727 | George II. | ſon of George I. |
| 1760 | George III. | grandſon of George II. |

himſelf

himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of ſucceſſion: which from the Norman invaſion had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almoſt 900.

Though in ſome points the Revolution was not ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy obſervation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wiſdom the extremes into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion, or total diſſolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the conſtitution was kept entire; which, upon every ſound principle of government muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, though not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only, of the body of the princeſs Sophia, as are proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Proteſtants.

And in this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms. The extremes, between which it ſteers, have been thought each of them to be deſtructive of thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may by the expreſs proviſion of the laws be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult. And, on the other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is ſurely of all conſtitutions the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch an hereditary right as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock, is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution, in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and, in all probability, will prove in duration the moſt permanent. This

conſtitution, it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops, or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people; who on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay*, Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay*, I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop*. Will you to your power cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy to be executed in all your judgements?—*King or queen*. I will.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop*. Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law do or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them.—*King or queen*. All this I promiſe to do.

"*After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpels, ſhall ſay*, The things which I have here before promiſed, I will perform and keep: ſo help me God. *And then kiſs the book.*"

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that in the king's part, in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8. two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England, which enact; the former, that every king at his ſucceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the Proteſtant religion, and Preſbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is one of the greateſt monarchs reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cogniſance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits, or the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make no new laws, nor raiſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the

the parliament to meet, and when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it had paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſeth the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſhold and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils, in ſome ſhape, are, as has been obſerved in page 270, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Blackſtone in his valuable Commentaries, ſays, "it is generally agreed, that in the main the conſtitution of parliament as it now ſtands, was marked out ſo long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, lords, and greater barons perſonally; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown by the ſheriff and bailiffs to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcutages when neceſſary. And this conſtitution hath ſubſiſted, in fact, at leaſt from the year 1265, 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant writs of that date to ſummon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to parliament."

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal (who ſit together with the king in one houſe), and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrickneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers, who repreſent the body of the

Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne: and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives *. In a free ſtate, every man, who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived, that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives, which it is impracticable to perform in perſon: repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation †. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though choſen, by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the commonwealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law for one, or by two

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* This muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed of land eſtates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which ſend no members to parliament; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property, have, therefore, no repreſentatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentation, has been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh conſtitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to ſeven years, has alſo been viewed in the ſame light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is adminiſtered to every perſon before they poll: "I do ſwear (or, being one of the people called Quakers, do ſolemnly affirm) I have not received or had by myſelf, or any perſon whatſoever in truſt for me, or for my uſe and benefit, directly or indirectly, any ſum or ſums of money, office, place or employment, gift or reward, or any promiſe or ſecurity for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election: and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God."

only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays Sir Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendent and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical, or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that abſolute deſpotic power, which muſt in all governments reſide ſomewhere, is entruſted by the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new model the ſucceſſion to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the eſtabliſhed religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances, in the reign of king Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as was done by the act of union, and the ſeveral ſtatutes for triennial and ſeptennial elections. It can, in ſhort, do every thing that is not naturally impoſſible: and therefore ſome have not ſcrupled to call its power by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then their power, however great, was given them in truſt, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of juſtice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter moſt eſſential to the liberties of the kingdom, that ſuch members be delegated to this important truſt, as are moſt eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treaſurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as Sir Mathew Hale obſerves, this being the higheſt and greateſt court, over which none other can have juriſdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a miſgovernment ſhould any way fall upon it, the ſubjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the miſchiefs that might ariſe, by placing this extenſive authority in hands that are either incapable, or elſe improper, to manage it, it is provided, that no one ſhall ſit or vote in either houſe of parliament, unleſs he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member ſhall vote or ſit in either houſe, till he hath, in the preſence of the houſe, taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration; and ſubſcribed and repeated the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, the invocation of ſaints, and the ſacrifice of the maſs. To prevent dangers that may ariſe to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, even though he be naturalized, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

Some of the moſt important privileges of the members of either houſe are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and of their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1 W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the open-

ing of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeizures by proceſs from the courts of law. To aſſault by violence a member of either houſe, or his menial ſervants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. Neither can any member of either houſe be arreſted and taken into cuſtody, nor ſerved with any proceſs of the courts of law; nor can his menial ſervants be arreſted; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be diſtrained or ſeized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The houſe of lords have a right to be attended, and conſequently are, by the judges of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, and ſuch of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made ſerjeants at law; as likewiſe by the maſters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great ſeal, which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the houſe as being his own repreſentative, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons for ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions, however, theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from the journals: but this has always been thought a violent meaſure, and not very conſiſtent with the general right of proteſting.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtyled the grand inqueſt of Great Britain, impowered to enquire into all national grievances, in order to ſee them redreſſed.

The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the ancient indiſputable privilege and right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and are firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purpoſes, until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons, is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves. And ſo reaſonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the leaſt alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money bill. Under this appellation are included all bills, by which money is directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for any purpoſe, or in any ſhape whatſoever; either for the exigen-

* This exemption from arreſts for lawful debts, was always conſidered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generouſly relinquiſhed their privilege by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houſes may now be ſued like other debtors.

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cies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish-rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the same in both houses. In each house the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given; not as at Venice, and many other senatorial assemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be serviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconstitutional combinations, but it is impossible to be practised with us, at least in the house of commons, where every member's conduct is subject to the future censure of his constituents, and therefore should be openly submitted to their inspection.

To bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it is of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition; which must be presented by a member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition. (In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance a second time; and after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question, whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropt for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either selected by the house in matters of small importance, or else, if the bill is a matter of great, or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman), and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and the then house re-consider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and, if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again opens the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and desire their concurrence; who, attended by several more,

carries it to the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the forms, as in the other houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or, ſometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference: but, if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houſes, and in their committees, the ſlighteſt expreſſion, or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs till the ſpeaker, or the chairman, puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and, in the houſe of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head and attended by his great officers of ſtate and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſat, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he appears before the king it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways; 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occaſion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre. The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer

ſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be;" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait comme il eſt deſiré*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte leur benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it ſo to be." In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject; *les prelats ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſint parliament aſſemblies, au nom de tout vous autres ſubjects, remercient tres humblement votre majeſte: et prient a Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners conſiſting of certain peers, named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

This ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However, copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the exerciſe of the higheſt authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every ſubject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himſelf, if particularly named therein. And it cannot be altered, amended, diſpenſed with, ſuſpended, or repealed, but in the ſame forms, and by the ſame authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the ſame ſtrength to diſſolve, as to create an obligation.

Such is the parliament of Great Britain; the ſource and guardian of our liberties and properties, the ſtrong cement which binds the foundation and ſuperſtructure of our government, and the wiſely concerted balance maintaining an equal poiſe, that no one part of the three eſtates overpower or diſtreſs either of the other.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears, that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can adviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are great reſources of liberty in England; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned,

turned, and ſometimes dangerouſly wounded, yet its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it. Monſ. Mezeray, the famous hiſtorian, ſaid to a countryman of ours, in the cloſe of the laſt century. "We had once in France the ſame happineſs and the ſame privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by repreſentatives of* OUR OWN *chuſing, therefore our money was not taken from us, but granted by us.* Our king's were then ſubject to the rules of law and reaſon—now, alas! we are miſerable, and all is loſt. Think nothing, ſir, too dear to maintain theſe precious advantages; if ever there ſhould be occaſion, venture your life and eſtate rather than baſely and fooliſhly ſubmit to that abject condition to which you ſee us reduced."

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors during the life of the king that chuſes them; but ſubject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy cornſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has been even known, that upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

Among the privy-counſellors, the two ſecretaries of ſtate are more officially ſo than the others, as they are entruſted with the king's ſignet, and are ſuppoſed to adviſe him in acts of government that may not be proper to be communicated even to a privy counſellor; ſuch as giving orders for ſecret expeditions, correſpondence with ſpies or other agents, ſecuring traitors, and the like. The ſecretaryſhip of ſtate is now held by two noblemen or gentlemen; formerly the king nominated three, but the office was not then of that conſequence which it is now. Since the acceſſion of the family of Hanover, we have likewiſe known three principal ſecretaries of ſtate; but one of them was ſuppoſed to tranſact the affairs of Scotland, which are now committed to other miniſters. Upon the vaſt increaſe of the Britiſh colonies, a new board of trade was erected, and the firſt commiſſioner acted as ſecretary for the American affairs, but without that title. A third ſecretary of ſtate was afterwards appointed ſolely for the American department; but by the late peace, the Americans will now appoint officers for, and officers from, among themſelves: the board of trade alſo hath been aboliſhed as uſeleſs.

The office of ſecretary of ſtate is at preſent divided into a ſouthern and a northern department. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs Cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the

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ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehends the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns.

With regard to the capital acts of government which were formerly entruſted with the ſecretaries of ſtate, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly entruſted. This cabinet generally conſiſts of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court: but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet-council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads me to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the *firſt miniſter*; a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter, but the affairs of his own courts give him ſufficient employment. When the office of the firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. I ſhall now take a ſhort review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their poſts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high ſteward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at leaſt for life; but now and for centuries paſt it is exerciſed only occaſionally; that is, at a coronation, or to ſit as judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whoſe commiſſion, as high ſteward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reaſon. He is an officer of the greateſt weight and power of any now ſubſiſting in the kingdom, and is ſuperior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy counſellor by his office, and according to ſome, prolocutor of the houſe of lords by preſcription. To him belongs the appointment of all juſtices of the peace; he is viſitor in right of the king of all hoſpitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics; and hath the ſuperintendance of all charitable uſes in the kingdom, over and above the extenſive juriſdiction which he exerciſes in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion, conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the Exchequer; as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown-lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom. From this ſhort view of his office, its importance may be eaſily underſtood; as he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, beſides the diſpoſal of ſo great a number of lucrative places,

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that the bare catalogues of them would exceed the bounds we allot to a long article.

The lord preſident of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor, and lord treaſurer. His duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vaſt number of American and Weſt India cauſes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubject by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy ſeal conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal. The lord privy ſeal has likewiſe under his cogniſance ſeveral other affairs, which do not require the great ſeal. He is to take care that the crown is not impoſed upon in any tranſaction paſſing through his hands; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary to the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; and of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of the higheſt truſt, as it commanded all the king's forts and garriſons, and took place of all officers in the field.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country, as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory for its diſcharge. In war time he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch a deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt trifle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day, he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like. He is ſuppoſed to be judge of the marſhalſea-court; and in thoſe reigns where proclamations had the force of law, he had a cenſorial power in all caſes of uſurping falſe names, deſignations, armorial bearings, and the like; but this power is now diſputed, and reduced to a conformity with the common law. As his grace is diſqualified by his religion from the exerciſe of many parts of his office, ſome proteſtant nobleman, generally one of his own friends or family, and at preſent his eldeſt ſon the earl of Surry being a proteſtant, is deputed to act for him, and he wears as his badge, a gold baton tipped with ebony.

The office of lord high admiral of England is * now likewiſe held by

* The laſt lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne.

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commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the growth of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board: and the members muſt ſign even the death warrants for execution; but it may be eaſily conceived, that, as they are removable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all their officers, or confirms them when named; ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is the court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and in his abſence, the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; the witneſſes being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and conſequently, if a man refuſes to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he ſees reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs; through his hands paſs all writs for ſummoning the parliament, or chooſing of members; commiſſions of the peace, pardons, &c

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of England ſometimes ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determinable by common law, between the king and his ſubjects are here tried, except ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewiſe, a kind of cheque upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt of whom is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great extent of his juriſdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual and temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices, or judges of the King's Bench.

The court of Common Pleas take cogniſance of all pleas debatable, and civil

civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſides all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, or common bench; beſide whom there are likewiſe three other judges, or juſtices of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons preſide as judges. They are ſtyled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſide theſe, there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtering the oath to ſheriffs and other officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe.—But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers. The lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by the king*; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court of juſtice; to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial, to ſee ſentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewiſe to decide the elections of knights of the ſhire, of coroners and verdurers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes, and amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county, under forty ſhillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the ſheriff's turn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and ſpecial commiſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and ſuperior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county.

* Sheriffs were formerly choſen by the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties. In ſome counties the ſheriffs were formerly hereditary, and ſtill continue in the county of Weſtmoreland. The city of London hath alſo the inheritance of the ſhrievalty of Middleſex veſted in their body by charter.

Under

Under the ſheriff are various officers; as the under-ſheriff, clerks, ſtewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called ſerjeants), conſtables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff, is the *juſtice of peace*, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is entruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and to be not without ſome knowledge of the law: for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is ſo intoxicating, without theſe qualifications he will be apt to make miſtakes, and to ſtep beyond his authority, for which he is indeed liable to be called to an account at the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is to enquire concerning ſhipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. In his miniſterial office, he is the ſheriff's ſubſtitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal: with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capital, are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, alderman, and burgeſſes, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuſe their own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the ſame manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſt important ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings and Hythe, to which Winchelſea and Rye have been ſince added with ſimilar franchiſes in many reſpects. Theſe cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips, at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil, or manor (who

(who were formerly called barons), have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on a deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high-conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable; and they are to attend the high-conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another ancient officer, called the tything-man, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant that is directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the Old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſide theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding forty ſhillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences, as that of England is, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively conſidered, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act, of which he is accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons on ſuch a ſuſpicion of guilt: ſuch as the caſe of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act: but this ſeldom has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety has abſolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty, by twelve men, who muſt be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his miniſters, to miſrepreſent the caſe to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any ſubject, without trial, and the perſons being firſt chargeable with a capital crime, as treaſon, murder, felony, or ſome other act, injurious to ſociety; nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty,

for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury ſhall be one half aliens, and the other denizens if required, for the more impartial trial. A privilege indulged to ſtrangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred*. In ſome caſes, the man (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number †, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the priſoners, whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Theſe only are the judges from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and underſtanding the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore inveſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence ſubmits his opinion to that of any of the other jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or after the moſt impartial hearing, has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed; he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wiſhes to bring in guilty. Were not this the caſe, juries would be uſeleſs; ſo far from being judges themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe province is not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph

* Statute de Monticolis Walliæ.

† The party may challenge thirty-five in caſe of treaſon.

over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is ſo capital a privilege, and ſo great a ſecurity to the liberty of the ſubject, it is much to be regretted, that perſons of education and property are often too ready to evade ſerving the office. By this means juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who neither have knowledge enough to underſtand their rights and the privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit enough to maintain them. No man ſhould be above ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly called upon: and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſcharging this duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and liberty which the inhabitants of this country derive from this invaluable inſtitution. Juries have, indeed, always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject, ſays he, let all ways be tried to juſtify him; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubjects may not get too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made uſe of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings.

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the priſoner refuſes to plead, that is, if he will not ſay in court whether he is *guilty* or

*not guilty*, he might till lately by the law of England, be preſſed to death, with a load of iron upon his breaſt.

When the witneſſes have given in their evidence, and the priſoner has, by himſelf or his counſel, croſs-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty* or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in *ſpecial*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner be found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy—it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy ſoul:* whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their indictment from the court to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are eſteemed more merciful, with reſpect to offenders, than thoſe which at preſent ſubſiſt in any other part of the known world; yet the puniſhment of ſuch who at their trial refuſe to plead guilty or not guilty, was formerly here very cruel. In this caſe the priſoner was laid upon his back upon the bare floor, naked, and his arms and legs being ſtretched out with cords, and a conſiderable weight of iron laid upon his breaſt, he was allowed only three morſels of barley bread the firſt day, the next day he was allowed nothing but three draughts of foul water that ſhall be neareſt to the priſon door; and in this ſituation, this was to be alternately his daily diet till he expired. This puniſhment, however, there was ſeldom occaſion to inflict, and the cruel proceſs is now aboliſhed; for by a late act of parliament the priſoner's refuſal to plead is to be conſidered as a conviction, and he is to ſuffer the ſame puniſhment as if he had been tried, and found guilty. And formerly, in caſe of high treaſon, though the criminal ſtood mute, judgment was given againſt him, as if he had been convicted, and his eſtate was confiſcated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view,

and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe*.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

*Petty treaſon* is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive; but inſtead of ſuffering the full rigour of the law, they are ſtrangled at the ſtake before the fire takes hold of them.

*Felony* includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only † murderers are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there were ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years, and lately ſome have been ſent to Africa and Nova Scotia.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

*Manſlaughter*, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this caſe, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

*Chance-medley*, is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act; which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

*Shoplifting* and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

*Perjury*, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

*Petty-larceny*, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

*Libelling*, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding on the pillory.

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* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking, in Weſtminſter-hall, while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife; or, as moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment, therefore, or annulling, of inceſtuous, or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage: as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as it is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe, it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together; as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman, for her ſupport, out of the huſband's eſtate; being ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on the conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

In the civil law, the huſband and the wife are conſidered as two diſtinct perſons; and may have ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore, in our eccleſiaſtical courts, a woman may ſue, and be ſued, without her huſband.

But though our law in general conſiders man and wife as one perſon, yet there are ſome inſtances in which ſhe is ſeparately conſidered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulſion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which caſe ſhe muſt be ſolely and ſecretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will deviſe land to her huſband, unleſs under ſpecial circumſtances; for at the time of making it, ſhe is ſuppoſed to be under his coercion. And in ſome felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her, through conſtraint of her huſband, the law excuſes her, but this extends not to treaſon or murder.

The huſband alſo (by the old, and likwiſe by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to anſwer for her miſbehaviour, the law thought it reaſonable to entruſt him with this power of reſtraining her, by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame moderation that a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children: for whom the maſter or parent is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſband; or, in return, a huſband againſt his wife: yet the lower rank of people, who were always fond of the old common law, ſtill claim and exert their ancient

privilege; and the courts of law will ſtill permit a huſband to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbehaviour.

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may obſerve, that even the diſabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the moſt part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhopricks; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and his ſending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a benefice. Theſe corodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, diſuſed. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that thoſe four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent are contracted within a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feodal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and preemption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous names of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies; and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament aſſembled: who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the *quantum* of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) final and concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, if the propoſed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the houſe of commons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandiſe exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office*, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp-duty on paper,

* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increaſed from 5 col. to 198,226l. but it ſhould be obſerved, that the groſs amount of

paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions, with a variety of new taxes in the ſeſſions of 1784.

The clear neat produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is eſtimated to amount annually to about eleven millions ſterling; with two millions and a quarter raiſed at an average, by the land and malt-tax. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it muſt be firſt premiſed, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, the expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree: inſomuch that it was not thought adviſeable to raiſe all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferrable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. A ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344: which government then owed about 60,000l. ſterling: and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called metaphorically, a mount or bank; the ſhares whereof were transferrable like our ſtocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deſerve that name. And the example then ſet, has been ſo cloſely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince, that the capital of the funded debt, at midſummer 1775 was 129,863,018l. and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,254l. 7s. The ruinous American war commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the ſinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for ſupplies, have conſiderably increaſed it*.

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both inland and foreign offices was that year 235,492l. In 1764, the groſs amount of the revenues of the Poſt-office for that year was 432,048l. which by the act paſſed in the ſeſſions of 1784, increaſing the duty according to the diſtance, and abridging the franking, muſt be conſiderably augmented.

* In the courſe of the late war from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000l. was added to the 3 per cents. and 29,750,000l. to the 4 per cents. making together a capital of 73,400,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

The following was the ſtate of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commiſſioners of the public accounts:

| £. | s. | d. | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 211,363,254 | 15 | 4¼ | Funded debt | | | |
| | | | Intereſt thereon - - | 7,951,390 | 1 | 0 |
| 18,856,541 | 11 | 4½ | Unfunded 1ſt of October, 1783: fifteen millions of this bears intereſt now. | | | |
| | | | Intereſt thereon - - | 612,742 | 0 | 0 |
| 230,219,706 | 6 | 9½ | | | | |
| | | | Charges at the Bank for managing the buſineſs - - - | 134,291 | 13 | 1 |
| | | | Fees at the auditor's office of impreſt - - - | 19,874 | 2 | 8 |
| | | | Some other fees of office - | 696 | 12 | 4 |
| | | | | 8,719,534 | 9 | 1 |
| | | | Since this report the funded debt hath increaſed to | 232,280,349 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | The unfunded debt, meaning all expences, deficiencies, arrears, and out ſtanding debts, for paying the principal or intereſt of which no proviſion was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned - - | 38,000,000 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | The amount of exchequer bills - - - | 9,418,564 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | 279,698,913 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation by its debts funded and unfunded, appear to be about - - - - | 9,500,000 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | Peace eſtabliſhment reckoned at the average annual Expence for eleven years preceding the war - | 3,950,000 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | Income of the civil liſt - - - - | 900,000 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | Whole expenditure - - - - | 14,350,000 | 0 | 0 |

The ſupplies demanded for the year 1784 amounted to 14,181,240l. but an eminent political writer, lord Stair, reckons the future annual peace expenditure at ſixteen millions and a half, including half a million for a ſurplus to anſwer emergencies. Another reſpectable writer on the ſubject eſtimates it at 13,615,669l. including 954,000l. *per annum* for the intereſt and charge of what remained of the unfunded debt after the laſt loan, and he eſtimates the peace revenue at near ſixteen millions. Time will unfold the future progreſs of our national debt, and the calamities towards which it is carrying us, if the moſt effectual meaſures are not adopted and zealouſly purſued for a thorough reformation.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greateſt inconveniences. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payment of the intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures; by raiſing the price as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw material; and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they

draw

draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt; or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid, ſo long as their exigences laſted even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to, and ſettled upon their poſterity in the time of peace, and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before mentioned were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting and blending them together: ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for ſome years about 2,600,000l. *per annum*; the *general fund*, ſo called from ſuch union and addition, which for ſome years have amounted to rather more than a million *per annum*; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million *per annum*. Whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to be held ſacred and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years: and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the ſinking fund. However, the neat ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances.

brances. And therefore the prudent application of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, ſeveral encroachments were made upon the ſinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it by Sir Robert Walpole, under pretence of eaſing the landed intereſt. The practice of alienating the ſinking fund being thus begun, hath continued of courſe; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged, and every ſubſequent adminiſtration hath broken in upon it, thus converting the excellent expedient for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for extravagance and a ſupport of corruption and deſpotiſm.

In ſome years, the ſinking fund hath produced from two to three millions *per annum*, and if only 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts from the year 1733, inſtead of only eight millions and a half paid off by it, as is the caſe at preſent, one hundred and ſixty millions would have been paid, and the nation have been extricated and ſaved. Different ſchemes have been formed for paying the public debts, but no method can be ſo expeditious and effectual as an unalienable ſinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound intereſt*, and therefore in the moſt perfect manner, but money procured by a loan bears only ſimple intereſt. "A nation therefore whenever it applies the income of ſuch a fund to current expences rather than the redemption of its debts, chooſes to loſe the benefit of compound intereſt in order to avoid paying ſimple intereſt, and the loſs in this caſe is equal to the difference between the increaſe of money at compound and ſimple intereſt *."

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principle of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintenance of the king's houſhold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown lands, the profit ariſing

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* Dr. Price's calculation plainly ſhews what this difference is: "One penny put out at our Saviour's birth to 5 per cent. compound intereſt, would in the year 1781, have increaſed to a greater ſum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths all ſolid gold; but if put out at ſimple intereſt, it at the ſame time would have amounted to no more than ſeven ſhillings and ſix pence. All governments that alienate funds deſtined for reimburſements, chooſe to improve money in the *laſt* rather than the *firſt* of theſe ways." He adds, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. ſtock, if diſcharged at 60l. in money for every 100l. ſtock; and in 40 years more, without any farther aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A ſurplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would diſcharge the ſame ſums in the ſame periods.

"In ſhort; ſo neceſſary is it at preſent to expedite, by every poſſible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the ſurplus which can be obtained for a ſinking fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for ſaving the kingdom.——The increaſe of taxes which ſuch a meaſure muſt occaſion, would be ſo inconſiderable and ſo gradual, as to be ſcarcely perceptible; and, at the ſame time, it would manifeſt ſuch a determined reſolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happieſt influence on public credit.

from

(*To face Page* 299.)

| The Amount of the Capitals at the Bank, South Sea, and India houſes. Corrected to the 5th of January, 1785. | | | | Intereſt per annum. | | | When due. | When transferrable. | Holidays. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bank ſtock - - - | 11,642,400 | | | 698,544 | | | 5 Ap. & 10 Oct. | Tu. Thu. & Fri. | Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30. |
| 5 per cent. navy annuities - | 6,879,341 | 19 | 6 | 343,967 | 1 | 11 | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | M. W. & Fri. | Feb. 2, 24. |
| 4 per cent. conſols - - | 32,750,000 | | | 1,310,000 | | | 5 Ap. & 10 Oct. | Tu. W. Thu. & Fri. | March 25. |
| 3 per cent. conſols - - | 107,401,696 | 5 | 1 | 3,222,050 | 17 | 9 | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | ditto | April 23, 25. |
| 3 per cent. reduced - - | 37,340,073 | 16 | 4 | 1,120,302 | 4 | 3 | 5 Ap. & 10 Oct. | ditto | May 1, 29. |
| 3 per cent. 1726 - - | 1,000,000 | | | 30,000 | | | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | Tu. & Th. | June 4, 11, 24, 29. |
| Long annuities - - - | | | | 680,375 | | | ditto | Tu. W. & Sat. | July 25. |
| Short annuities, 1777 - - | | | | 25,000 | | | 5 Ap. & 10 Oct. | ditto | Auguſt 1, 12, 24. |
| Short annuities 1778, and 1779 - | | | | 412,500 | | | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | M. W. & Fri. | Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. |
| | | | | | | | | | Oct. 18, 25, 26, 28. |
| South Sea ſtock - - | 3,662,784 | 8 | 6 | 128,197 | 9 | 1 | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | M. W. & Fri. | Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30. |
| 3 per cent. old annuities - | 11,907,470 | 2 | 7 | 357,224 | 2 | | 5 Ap. & 10 Oct. | ditto | Dec. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28. |
| 3 per cent. new - - | 8,494,830 | 2 | 10 | 254,844 | 18 | 1 | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | Tu. Th. & Sat. | Moveable. |
| 3 per cent. 1751 - - | 1,919,600 | | | 57,588 | | | ditto | Tu. & Th. | Shrove Tu. Aſh W. Good Friday. |
| India ſtock - - - | 3,200,000 | | | 256,000 | | | 5 Jan. & 5 July. | Tu. Th. & Sat. | Eaſt. M. T. W. Ho. T. |
| 3 per cent. annuities - - | 3,000,000 | | | 90,000 | | | 5 Ap. & 10 Oct. | M. W. & Fri. | Whit. M. Tu. & W. |
| N. B. Intereſt on India bonds, due 31ſt of March, and 30th Sep. | 229,198,196 | 14 | 10 | 8,96,493 | 13 | 1 | N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, & 1 to 3. Transfers 11 to 1. Dividends at the S. S. & In. Houſe, 9 to 12. Transfers 12 to 1. | | |

from courts of juſtice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue of the crown), and alſo a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his houſhold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches were uncertain, (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million), if they did not riſe annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public; and having accepted the limited ſum of 800,000l. *per annum*, for the ſupport of his civil liſt (and that alſo charged with three life annuities, to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77000l.), the ſaid hereditary, and other revenues, are now carried into, and made, part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, beſides annual payments to the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland and the repreſentatives of Arthur Onſlow, eſq. and the earl of Chatham. Hereby the revenues themſelves, being put under the ſame care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected, than heretofore. The civil liſt, thus liquidated, together with the millions intereſt of the national debt, and the ſums produced from the ſinking fund, beſide the uncertain ſums, ariſing from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately impoſed, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charge of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of fourteen million ſterling. The amount of the capitals of the reſpective public funds, may be ſeen in the oppoſite page.

The expences defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe that in any ſhape relate to civil government; as the expences of the houſhold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purſe, and other very numerous outgoings; as ſecret ſervice-money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament, to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large ſums have alſo been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the preſent reign; and the conſiderable augmentation of 100,000l. has likewiſe been made to his annual income. When the bill for ſuppreſſing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which ſavings were to be made to the amount of 72,308l. per annum, it appeared that the arrears then due on the civil liſt at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l. 18s. 4d. notwithſtanding ſo liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeated liquidated by parliamentary grants; and for the payment of this other debt, proviſion was made by the bill.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and diſtributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it is now ſtanding in the ſame place as the here-

ditary

ditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have increaſed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The *military ſtate* includes the whole of the ſoldiery; or ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch, no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen and would with to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe, who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Wincheſter obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace; and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice: but both this and the former proviſions were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſettled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which, is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal land-

landholders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but, when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence, and which the ſtatutes declare, is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom; the militia, however, are not called forth and embodied but by an act of the legiſlature, and at preſent are laid aſide.

But as the faſhion of keeping ſtanding armies has univerſally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though ſome of its potentates, being unable themſelves to maintain them, are obliged to have recourſe to richer powers, and receive ſubſidiary penſions for that purpoſe), it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces * of theſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt-Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, ſince the commencement of the American war, 135,000 men, beſides 42,000 militia. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and ſoldier ſhall excite, or join any mutiny, or knowing of it, ſhall not give notice to the commanding officer; or ſhall deſert, or liſt in any other regiment, or ſleep upon his poſt, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correſpondence with a rebel or enemy, or ſtrike or uſe violence to his ſuperior officer or ſhall diſobey his lawful command; ſuch offender ſhall ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as a court martial ſhall inflict, though it extend to death itſelf.

Officers and ſoldiers that have been in the king's ſervice, are, by ſeveral ſtatutes enacted at the cloſe of ſeveral wars, at liberty to uſe any trade

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* The land forces conſiſt of 2 troops of horſe-guards, raiſed in 1660.—2 troops of horſe-grenadier-guards, raiſed in 1693, and 1702.—1 royal regiment of horſe-guards, ditto, 1661.—4 regiments of horſe guards, ditto, 1685 and 1688.—3 regiments of dragoon guards, ditto, 1685.—15 regiments of dragoons, including light-horſe, raiſed between 1683 and 1759.—3 regiments of foot-guards, raiſed in 1660.—70 regiments of foot, the firſt, or Royal Scots, raiſed in 1633, the others between 1661 and 1762.—20 independent companies of invalids. 4 battalions of Royal Artillery, a royal regiment of artillery in Ireland, and a corps of engineers: together, with 4 diviſions of marine forces.—1 regiment of light dragoons, and five battalions of foot in Eaſt-India. Several regiments raiſed for the ſervice of the crown, from the commencement of the American war, have lately been diſbanded.

or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two univerſities) notwithſtanding any ſtatute, cuſtom, or charter to the contrary. And ſoldiers, in actual military ſervice, may make verbal wills, and diſpoſe of their goods, wages, and other perſonal chattels, without thoſe forms, ſolemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other caſes.

## Daily Pay of each Rank in his Majeſty's Land Forces on the Britiſh Eſtabliſhment.

| | Royal Reg. of Horſe-guards. | | Dragoons. | | Foot Guards. | | Foot. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F. Pay. | Subſiſt. | F. Pay. | Subſiſt. | F. Pay. | Subſiſt. | F. Pay. | Subſiſt. |
| | l. s. d. | l. s. d. | l. s. d. | l. s. d. | l. s. d. | l. s. d. | l. s. d. | l. s. d. |
| Colonel and Captain | 2 1 | 1 11 | 1 15 | 1 6 6 | 1 19 | 1 10 | 1 4 | 18 |
| Lieutenant Colonel and Captain | 1 9 6 | 1 2 6 | 1 4 6 | 18 6 | 1 8 6 | 1 1 6 | 17 | 13 6 |
| Major and Captain | 1 7 | 1 1 | 1 | 15 6 | 1 4 | 18 6 | 15 | 11 6 |
| Captain | 1 1 6 | 16 | 15 6 | 11 6 | 16 6 | 12 6 | 10 | 7 6 |
| Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant | 15 | 11 6 | 9 | 7 | 7 10 | 6 | 4 8 | 3 6 |
| Cornet h.gd. & dr. Enſ. ft.g. Enſ. or 2d Lt. ft. | 14 | 11 | 8 | 6 | 5 10 | 4 6 | 3 8 | 3 |
| Chaplain | 6 8 | 5 | 6 8 | 5 | 6 8 | 5 | 6 8 | 5 |
| Adjutant | 5 | 4 6 | 5 | 4 6 | 4 | 3 | 4 8 | 3 6 |
| Quarter-Maſter | 8 6 | 6 6 | 5 6 | 4 6 | 4 | 3 | 4 8 | 3 6 |
| Surgeon | 6 | 4 6 | 6 | 4 6 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 3 |
| Surgeon's Mate | | | | | 3 6 | 3 | 3 6 | 3 |
| Drum Major | | | | | 1 6 | 1 | | |
| Deputy Marſhal | | | | | 1 | 9 | | |
| Serjeant | | | 2 9 | 2 3 | 1 10 | 1 4 | 1 6 | 1 |
| Corporal | | 2 6 | 2 3 | 1 9 | 1 2 | 1 0 | 1 1 | 8 |
| Drummer | | 2 6 | 2 3 | 1 9 | 1 2 | 8 | 1 1 | 8 |
| Trumpeter | | 2 | 1 9 | 1 5 | 10 | 6 | 8 | 6 |
| Private Man | | 2 | 1 9 | 1 5 | 1 | 6 | 1 2 | 6 |
| Allowance on the Eſtabliſhment to | Colonel | 2 | 2 6 | 1 2 | 1 7 | 6 | | |
| | Do. for hautbois per troop or company | 4 | 2 | 1 6 | | | | |
| | Captain - per troop or company | 4 | 2 4 | 2 4 | 1 1 | 1 1 | 1 1 | 1 6 |
| | Agent - per troop or company | 2 | 1 2 | 1 2 | 6 | 6 | 6 | |

New

New Eſtabliſhment of the Corps of Engineers, October 1ſt, 1784.

| Rank. | Per Day. £. s. d. | Per Ann. £. s. d. |
|---|---|---|
| Maſter General - - | 0 0 0 | 0 0 0 |
| Lieutenant General - - | 0 0 0 | 0 0 0 |
| Chief Engineer - - | 2 4 0 | 803 0 0 |
| Five Colonels, each - - | 0 18 0 | 1642 10 0 |
| Five Lieutenant Colonels - | 0 15 0 | 1368 15 0 |
| Ten Captains - - | 0 10 0 | 1825 0 0 |
| Ten Captains - - | 0 6 0 | 1095 0 0 |
| Twenty Lieutenants - - | 0 7 8 | 1703 6 8 |
| Ten Second Lieutenants - - | 0 4 0 | 730 0 0 |
| Corps of Invalids - - - | 2 17 8 | 1234 10 0 |
| Total | | £. 10,402 1 8 |

The MARITIME ſtate is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and ſubſtruction of all the marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatute, called the navigation act; whereby the conſtant increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary. The moſt beneficial ſtatute for the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were firſt framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the ſugar iſlands, which were diſaffected to the parliament, and ſtill held out for Charles II. by ſtopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the ſame time to clip the wings of thoſe our opulent and aſpiring neighbours. This prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with any Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that European nation, of which the merchandiſe imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued, by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have formerly amounted to no leſs than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, they

they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines. The vote of parliament for the ſervice of the year 1784, is for 26,000 ſeamen, including 4495 marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons; namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the vaſt armament ſent to ſubdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm, that the Britiſh navy, during the war of 1756, was able to cope with all the other fleets in Europe. In the courſe of a few years it entirely vanquiſhed the whole naval power of France, diſabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe. For the protection of the Britiſh empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into ſeveral powerful ſquadrons, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe; and while ſome fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Aſia and America, others were employed in fruſtrating the deſigns of France, and eſcorting home the riches of the eaſtern and weſtern worlds *.

The nation have to lament the want of a proper attention to the fleets in the laſt war, both as to their home equipment, and their foreign deſtination.

Many laws have been made for the ſupply of the royal navy with ſeamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them, during, and after the ſervice.

1. For their ſupply. The power of impreſſing men, for the ſea-ſervice, by the king's commiſſion, has been a matter of ſome diſpute, and ſubmitted to with great reluctance; though it hath very learnedly been

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* The Royal Navy of GREAT BRITAIN, as it ſtood at Auguſt, 31, 1784.

| Rates of Ships. | Guns. | No. of each Rate. | Complement of Men. Men. | Weight of Metal, Metal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1ſt. | 100 and upward | 5 | 875 to 850 — 42 | 24 lb. 12 & 6 |
| 2d. | 98 to 90 — | 20 | 750 to 700 — 32 | 18 12 6 |
| 3d. | 80 to 64 — | 130 | 650 to 500 — 32 | 18 9 6 |
| 4th. | 60 to 50 — | 27 | 420 to 380 — 24 | 12 6 & 18 9 6 |
| 5th. | 44 to 32 — | 102 | 300 to 220 — 18 | 9 6 & 12 6 |
| 6th. | 30 to 20 — | 50 | 200 to 160 — 9 | 4 |
| | | 334 | | |
| Sloops, — | 18 to 14 — | 143 | 125 to 110 | |
| Bombs, Fire-ſhips, &c. | —. | 19 | | |
| | Total, | 496 | | |

In commiſſion 25 of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, and 105 ſloops. When a ſhip of war becomes old, or unfit for ſervice, the ſame name is tranſferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a ſingle beam of the old ſhip remains, the name cannot be changed unleſs by act of parliament.

ſhewn

ſhewn by Sir Michael Foſter, that the practice of impreſſing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpoſe, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular ſeries of precedents to the preſent time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty ariſes from hence, that no ſtatute, or act of parliament, has expreſsly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them

The Pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to Flags.

| | per day. |
|---|---|
| Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet | 5 0 0 |
| An Admiral | 3 10 0 |
| Vice Admiral | 2 10 0 |
| Rear Admiral | 1 15 0 |
| Firſt Captain to the Commander in Chief | 1 15 0 |
| Second ditto, and Captain to other Admirals | 1 0 0 |
| —— to V. Admirals } if firſt or ſecond Rates, to } | 0 16 0 |
| —— to R. Admirals } have the pay of ſuch Rates } | 0 13 6 |

| OFFICERS. | *Firſt.* | | | *Second.* | | | *Third.* | | | *Fourth.* | | | *Fifth.* | | | *Sixth.* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* | *l.* | *s.* | *d* | *l.* | *s.* | *d* | *l.* | *s.* | *d* | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* |
| Captain *per day* | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| Lieutenant *per day* | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Maſter *per month* | 9 | 2 | 0 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 7 | 6 | 0 | 5 | 12 | 0 | 6 | 2 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| 2d maſter and pilots of yachts, each 3l. 10s. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Maſter's mate | 3 | 6 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 16 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| Midſhipman | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 17 | 6 | 1 | 13 | 9 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 |
| Schoolmaſter | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 17 | 6 | 1 | 13 | 9 | 1 | 10 | 0 | | | |
| Captain's Clerk | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 17 | 6 | 1 | 13 | 9 | | | | | | |
| Quarter-maſter | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Quarter-maſter's mate | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Boatſwain | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 10 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Boatſwain's mate | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Yeomen of the Sheets | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Coxſwain | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Maſter ſail maker | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 |
| Sail maker's mate | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 |
| Sail maker's crew | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Gunner | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 10 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Gunner's mate | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Yeo. of powder room | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Quarter Gunner* | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Armourer | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 17 | 6 | 1 | 13 | 9 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 |
| Armourer's mate | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Gunſmith | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Carpenter | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 10 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Carpenter's mate | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 16 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 |
| Carpenter's crew | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Purſer | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 10 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Steward | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Steward's mate | 1 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 8 | | | | | | |
| Cook | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0 |
| Surgeon † | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Surgeon's firſt mate | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| —— ſecond mate | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 0 | | | |
| —— third mate | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | | | | |
| —— fourth & fifth | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | | | | | | | | | |
| Chaplain § | 0 | 19 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 0 | | | | | | |

* *One to every four guns.*

† *Beſide 2d. a month from each man.*

§ *Beſides 4d. a month from each man.*

very ſtrongly imply it. It has alſo been ſuppoſed, that a practice ſo unfavourable to the liberty of the ſubject, and to common principles of juſtice and humanity, could not be ſolidly ſupported without ſome clear, poſitive, and unequivocal law.

Beſides this method of impreſſing (which, even if legal, is only defenſible from public neceſſity, ſuch as an actual rebellion or invaſion of the kingdom, to which all private conſiderations muſt give way,) the principal trading cities, and ſometimes the government, offer bounty money to ſeamen who enter voluntarily into his majeſty's ſervice; and every foreign ſeaman who, during a war, ſhall ſerve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipſo facto*.

But as impreſſing is generally conſidered as a groſs violation of the natural rights of mankind, ſo as the bounty money, which ſeldom exceeds 40s proved ineffectual. The wages of ſeamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is uſually 50s. to 4l. per month; on board of the royal navy, they only receive 22s. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize money, which, if divided in a more equal and equitable manner, would produce the happieſt effects to this nation. There would then be leſs occaſion for bounty money or preſſing; our fleets would be ſpeedily manned, and regularly ſupplied with experienced and able ſeamen. Since, under Providence, not only the very exiſtence of this nation, its commerce, and foreign ſettlements; but the liberties of Europe, and ſecurity of the proteſtant religion, ſolely depend on the ſtrength and ſucceſs of the Britiſh navy, which is the only mode of war we ought ever to engage in; it has been matter of ſurpriſe to every thinking, diſintereſted ſubject of theſe kingdoms, that neither the above mentioned regulation, nor any other ſatisfactory ſcheme has yet taken place; but that to enrich a few ſuperior officers, we ſhould deprive thoſe very men of their rights and liberty, to whoſe valour and intrepidity alone, in the day of public danger, we look for our preſervation.

2. The method of ordering ſeamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular diſcipline there, is directed by certain expreſs rules, articles, and orders, firſt enacted by the authority of parliament ſoon after the Reſtoration; but new modelled and altered ſince the peace of Aix la Chapelle, to remedy ſome defects which were of fatal conſequence in conducting the preceding war. In theſe articles of the navy, almoſt every poſſible offence is ſet down, and the puniſhment thereof annexed, in which reſpect the ſeamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land ſervice; whoſe articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleaſure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on ſailors, they are pretty much the ſame with thoſe conferred on ſoldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed, or wounded, or ſuperannuated, it is afforded them either by county rates, or from the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; they are alſo allowed the exerciſe of trades in corporations, and the power of making teſtaments; and, farther, no ſeaman aboard his majeſty's ſhips can be arreſted for any debt, unleſs the ſame be ſworn to amount to at leaſt twenty pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a ſoldier may be arreſted for a debt which extends to half that value, but not to leſs amount.

I ſhall cloſe this account of the miltary and maritime ſtrength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act, that is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither

neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. Thoſe civil magiſtrates, who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution, are, however, extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reaſon; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with too much caution.

Coins.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence, twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound, which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the ſilver, of crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſix-pences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny; and the copper money only of half-pence and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of ſilver is nearly equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly, ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent ſtate of the national currency ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſix-pences; the intrinſic value of the latter being many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but theſe are not generally current; nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſix-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

Royal titles, arms, and orders.] The title of the king of England, is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly, his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of majeſty; but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal atchievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions paſſant guardant, in pale Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure flowered, and counter-flowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The ſecond quarter in the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third the enſigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna.* And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol*, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, *Sol, ſemée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*; having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant, Luna, ente* (or grafted) *in baſe*; and *in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old

as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particularly badge or cogniſance: ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes; and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter, many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contradiſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſet*. "None ſhall ſafely provoke me".

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon, are, Prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain-general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the moſt honourable of any in the world, was inſtituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the titular ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue riband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but ſince the latter end of James I. now croſſes their bodies from their ſhoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was deſigned as an enſign of unity and combination; on it is embroidered the words, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*, "Evil to him who evil thinks." Authors are divided as to the original of that motto; but it probably alluded to the bad faith of the French king John, Edward's contemporary; declaring thereby the equity of his own intention, and retorting ſhame on any who ſhould think ill of the enterprize he had engaged in to ſupport his right to the crown of France. This order is ſo reſpectable, that ſome of the moſt illuſtrious foreign princes have been companions of it. It has a prelate, who is the biſhop of Wincheſter, and a chancellor, who is the biſhop of Saliſbury for the time being. It has likewiſe a regiſter, who is dean of Windſor, and a principal king at arms, called Garter, whoſe office it is to marſhal and manage the ſolemnities at the inſtallation and feaſts of the knights. The place of inſtallation is Edward III's chapel at Windſor, on which occaſion the knights appear in magnificent robes, appropriated to their order, and in their collars of SS. The collar and cap and feathers were introduced by Henry VIII. and to the croſs of the order encompaſſed with the garter worn on the left ſide of their coat, Charles II. added a ſilver ſtar of eight points.

Knights of the BATH, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to be inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399; but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns, they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear a ſcarlet riband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal the badge of the order, a roſe iſſuing from the dexter ſide of a ſceptre, and a thiſtle from the ſiniſter, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in unum*, "Three joined in one." This order being diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725, and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and

as many commoners of the firſt rank, were inſtalled knights of the order with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter, where the place of inſtalment is Henry VII's chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhewy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The biſhop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter and other officers.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that kingdom; as is alſo the order of St. Patrick, newly inſtituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counſellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but at preſent their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party themſelves to the appellation of *Sir*. In the common laws they are called milites or ſoldiers; and they are made, by the king laying a ſword upon their ſhoulders, and deſiring them to riſe by the title of Sir. It is a mark of perſonal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not deſcend to poſterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now diſuſed. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *eſquire*, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradeſman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gowar the poet, appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the kings houſhold, juſtices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and phyſic, take place of other eſquires; and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than eſquires, though commonly deſigned by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all Engliſh honour; for every nobleman is preſumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the firſt inhabitants of Britain

were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore; a ſuppoſition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

In the account I have given of the laws and conſtitution, may be found great part of the hiſtory of England, which I ſhall not here repeat, but confine myſelf to the different gradations of events, in a chronological order, connected with the improvement of arts, ſciences, commerce, and manufactures, at their proper periods.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated a conqueſt of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæſar wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch advantages over the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæſar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive; nor did the Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the iſland than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæſar's deſcent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for ſome time.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar and the beſt authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned: but they certainly ſowed corn, though, perhaps, they chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was ſkins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility; and they fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recogniſed as ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts. They favoured a primogeniture or ſeniority, in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies, on their ſkins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original huſband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful againſt Britain. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia, though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicia being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland, where his ſucceſſors had

no

no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls I have ſo often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and cuſtoms, became familiar in Britain. There ſeems to be no great foundation for this aſſertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans conſidered Britain chiefly as a nurſery for their armies abroad, on account of the ſuperior ſtrength of body, and courage of the inhabitants, when diſciplined. That this was the caſe, appears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that iſland. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a ſtate of great vaſſalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave reſiſtance againſt theſe tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unqueſtionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no ſtruggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithſtanding the many favourable opportunities that preſented themſelves. The Roman emperors and generals while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have been in no pain about the ſouthern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itſelf *, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire. As the Roman forces decreaſed in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always oppoſed the progreſs of the Romans in this iſland, advanced the more boldly into the ſouthern parts, carrying terror and deſolation over the whole country. The effeminated Britons were ſo accuſtomed to have recourſe to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored the return of the Romans, who as often drove back the invaders to their mountains and ancient limits beyond the walls. But theſe enterprizes ſerved only to protract the miſeries of the Britons; and the Romans now reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with theſe diſtant expeditions, acquainted the Britons, that they muſt no longer look to them for protection, and exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and that they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their laſt farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the whole iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons like a helpleſs

* See the Introduction.

family, deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued by their own fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſerable epiſtle for relief (ſtill upon record), which was addreſſed in theſe words: *To Aetius, thrice conſul: The groans of the Britons*; and after other lamentable complaints, ſaid, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief: Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Dammonii*, by whoſe advice the Britons ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh channel, and their native countries comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time, Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who ſeems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions indeed a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected hiſtory. We can therefore only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieſſin, whoſe works are ſaid to be extant, with others of leſs note. All we know upon the whole is, that after repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were ſometimes the enemies, and ſometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became maſters of all England to the ſouth of Adrian's, or rather, Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts ſeem to have been maſters of all the territory to the north of that, though they ſuffered the Britons who had been driven northwards, to be governed by their own tributary kings; an intermixture that has created great doubts and confuſions in hiſtory, which I ſhall not pretend here to unravel.

I have already given a ſketch of the conſtitution and government which the Saxons imported into England, and which form by far the moſt valuable part of their ancient hiſtory.

We have no account of their converſion to Chriſtianity but from popiſh writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their ſuperiors. According to them, Ethelbert king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being deſcended from Hengiſt one of the firſt invaders, married the king of France's daughter, and ſhe being a Chriſtian, Pope Gregory the Great ſeized that opportunity to enforce the converſion of her huſband to Chriſtianity, or rather to popery. For that purpoſe, about the year 596 he ſent over to England the famous Auſtin, the monk,

who

who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people; and alſo Sebert, king of the Eaſt Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then, by his maſter's order, attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Eaſter; but finding a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of the biſhops and clergy, he perſuaded his Chriſtian converts to maſſacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 prieſts and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a ſtate of ſlavery, which ſome think gave riſe to the ancient villanage in England. Auſtin is accounted the firſt archbiſhop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did ſoon after.

It does not fall within my deſign to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope in Auſtin's time ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Anglo Saxons during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks; and as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days; no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings during the Heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald king of Mercia, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, becauſe paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, Auguſt 1ſt *.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly choſe one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any juriſdiction in the dominion of others. The clergy, we may eaſily ſuppoſe, had great influence on thoſe occaſions; and the hiſtory of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treaſons, and murders, committed by the inſtigations of prieſts and monks. Even their criminal law, as hath been already obſerved, admitted of a pecuniary compenſation for murder, and regicide itſelf.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in compariſon of the nations on the continent; becauſe they were free from the Saracens, or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and, if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred king of Kent paid at one time to Ina king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but ſuperſtitious Bede, about the year 740, compoſed his church hiſtory of Britain, from the coming

* This tax was impoſed at firſt for the ſupport of a college at Rome, for the education of Engliſh youth, founded by Ina king of Weſſex, under the name of *Romeſcot*, but in proceſs of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucceſſors.

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in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when about the year 800, moſt of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the Northumbrians in the year 827 he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany; and I have in a former part of this work, mentioned the commercial treaty between him and Offa king of Mercia, to whom he ſent in a preſent, a Hungarian ſword, a belt, and two ſilken veſts. Egbert had been obliged by ſtate jealouſies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt-Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore ſoon united the Saxon Heptarchy in his own perſon, but without ſubduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-land, or England; but there is reaſon to believe that ſome part of England continued ſtill to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a ſmall tribute to Egbert. His proſperity excited the envy of the northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infeſted the ſeas, and were no ſtrangers to the coaſts of England; for about the year 833 they made deſcents upon Kent and Dorſetſhire, where they defeated Egbert in perſon, and carried off abundance of booty to their ſhips. About two years after, they landed in Cornwall, and though they were joined by the Corniſh Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838 at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time, England had become a ſcene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they ſhew his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin biſhop of Wincheſter. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſt, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned

tioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven battles with the Danes with various ſucceſs, and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cowherd: but ſtill he kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection: ſo that he is thought to have been the moſt powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into deſuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himſelf not only a ſcholar, but an author; and he tells us himſelf, that upon his acceſſion to the throne he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick buildings to general uſe in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſt of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Norway coaſt, ſo far north as commonly the whale hunters uſe to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and uſeful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, againſt the Danes. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles with thoſe barbarians. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly dignified with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuſe on the hiſtory of Alfred's reign, as it is the moſt glorious of any in the Engliſh annals, though it did not extend to foreign conqueſts.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince was ſuch an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or *nobleman* of the firſt rank. He cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear however to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and was generally ſucceſsful, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſ-

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fors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vassals, he sitting at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan. His reign however was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tine. He was succeeded in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The English nation at this time, by the help of priests, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest part of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the first land tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general massacre of them by the English, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed, by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed was succeeded by his son Canute the Great, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, (so called for his great bodily strength) Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his son Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable, and his successor Hardicanute, was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward who is commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Edward the Confessor was a soft, good natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister earl Goodwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. He durst not resent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment of him; and perceiving his kinsman Edgar Atheling to be of a soft disposition, neither he nor the English paid much regard to Atheling's hereditary right; so that the Confessor, as is said, devised the succession of his crown upon his death to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with the fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England with-

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out oppoſition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Battle now ſtands, which took its name from it, near Haſtings in Suſſex, and a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

I cannot find any great improvements, either in arts or arms, which the Saxons had made in England ſince the firſt invaſion of the Danes. Thoſe barbarians ſeem to have carried off with them almoſt all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons; for I perceive that Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money, and bullion they had carried off; for we are told, that Harold in his laſt victory over the Danes, regained as much treaſure as twelve luſty men could carry off. We have indeed very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coſt 1s. an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretioſum) 1s. a hide of land containing 120 acres, 100s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man at 3l. The board wages of a child the firſt year, was 8s. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo Saxons, we can ſay little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, who always diſcouraged manufactures.

We are however to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magiſtrates. The latter depended upon the ſee of Rome, and directed the conſciences of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody ſet. A great deal of the Saxon barbariſm was likewiſe owing to the Daniſh invaſions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidſt all thoſe defects, public and perſonal liberty were well underſtood and guarded by the Saxon inſtitutions; and we owe to them at this day, the moſt valuable privileges of the Engliſh ſubjects.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of numbers

bers was on the ſide of Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William with very little farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſiderable alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting lands into knight's fees*, which are ſaid to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great perſons who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave for inſtance to one of his barons, the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown; and here, according to ſome hiſtorians, we have the riſe of the feudal law in England. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every thing poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution; though, at his coronation, he took the ſame oath that uſed to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time), and an account to be taken of the villans, or ſervile tenants, ſlaves, and live ſtock upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable atchievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern hiſtory. William ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour, and with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the ſixty-firſt of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the moſt material tranſactions of William's reign; and it may be farther obſerved, that by the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and what is

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee: and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

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very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans by the conqueſt, gained much of the Engliſh land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave us an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared ſoon afterwards. England by the conqueſt, gained likewiſe a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. But the dominion of the narrow ſeas ſeems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs the banks or coaſts on both ſides; and ſo to have ſtrengthened the former title, by ſo long a coaſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of England on the other ſide of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago loſt all our poſſeſſions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our ſeamen, and the ſuperior ſtrength of our navy to any other power.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and conſequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious ſubjects. About this time the cruſades of the Holy Land began, and Robert who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age. He is chiefly accuſed of rapaciouſneſs and oppreſſion; but the circumſtances of his reign had great demands for money, which he had no other means of raiſing but from a luxurious, over-grown clergy, who had engroſſed all the riches of the kingdom.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the Tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, which overflowed great part of Earl Goodwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne, firſt by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; ſecondly, by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great meaſure reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate, and they

formed, as it were, a ſeparate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry partly by force, and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and duchy of Normandy; and, with the moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed, and ſeized by Stephen earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown, dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, ſhe ſcornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from their government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal ſubjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough adviſed to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and thus exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was ſon to the empreſs; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay ariſtocracy, propoſed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil

wars,

wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. He ſoon diſcovered amazing abilities for government, and had performed in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by diſcharging them from every burden, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of ſuch towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vaſt acceſſion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown alone could ſupport the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were repreſented as illegal. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becker. This man, powerful from his office, and ſtill more ſo by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal, cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted; which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the ſee of Rome was at the ſame time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and increaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject of his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurſe, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito; and, without acquainting Henry of

their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed their most valuable possessions in the north of England. This occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner; and, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done, and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry should desire it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland: and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poictou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor. to her seducing her sons, Henry (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time), Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected him so much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and 57th of his age. The sum he left in ready money at his death, has perhaps been exaggerated, but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 2-0,000l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were established all over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 87l. 10s. 4d. in the sheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Maddox: a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in building. Malmsbury, Henry archdeacon of Huntingdon, and other historians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin style, which in some places is both pure and elegant.

In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit with impunity, all sorts of disorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *assizes*, or administer justice to the people, as is practised at this day.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships, which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were

were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable and perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy wars made them ſubmit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became, in following reigns, an uſual method of ſupplying the neceſſities of the crown. It was ſometimes a practice of the kings of England to repeat the ceremony of their coronation thrice a year, on aſſembling the ſtates at the three great feſtivals. Henry after the firſt years of his reign, never renewed this ceremony, which was found to be very expenſive and very uſeleſs. None of his ſucceſſors ever revived it. Since we are here collecting ſome detached inſtances, which ſhow the genius of theſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbiſhop of York, and Richard archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger, in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion from his great courage, was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour, that give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the duke of Auſtria; who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000l. of our preſent money. According to contemporary authors, the raiſing of this ranſom proved to be a matter of ſo much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all perſons, both eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, of one fourth part of their income for one year; and twenty ſhillings on every knight's fee; alſo one year's wool borrowed of the Ciſtercians; beſides money raiſed upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks which were furniſhed by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure. Though all theſe ſums are well authenticated, yet it is not eaſy to reconcile them with certain other money tranſactions of this reign, but by ſuppoſing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad all the viſible ſpecie in the kingdom; and that the people had reſerved vaſt hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a briſker turn.

Upon Richard's return from his captivity, he held a parliament at Nottingham; hither William king of Scotland came, and demanded the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Lancaſter, as his predeceſſors had enjoyed the ſame. Richard put him off for the preſent with fair words; yet by advice of his council he granted William by charter, the following honours and benefits for him and his ſucceſſors, viz. "That whenever a king of Scotland was to be ſum-

moned to the court of England to do homage for the lands he held in England, he ſhould be, at the river Tweed, received by the biſhop of Durham and the ſheriff of Northumberland, and they ſhould conduct him to the river Tees, where the archbiſhop and ſheriff of York ſhould receive him; and ſo in like ſort the biſhop and ſheriffs of the other ſhires, till he arrived at court. On his journey he had 100 ſhillings (15l. of our money) per day allowed him for charges. At court thirty ſhillings per day; twelve waſtels, and twelve ſimnels of the king's (two ſorts of fine bread in uſe then), four quarts of the king's beſt wine; ſix quarts of ordinary wine; two pound weight of pepper; and four pound weight of cinnamon; four wax lights; forty great long perches of the king's beſt candles; and twenty-four of the ordinary ones. And on his return he was to be conducted as before, with the ſame allowances."

Whilſt the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the ſame homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid no more homage *.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and a ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now ordered to be the ſame all over the kingdom. Richard upon his return, found his dominions in great diſorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he however pardoned; and by the invaſions of the French, whom he repelled; but was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother Conſtance, complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be

* It appears however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his ſubjects, conſented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity to be their ſovereigns and liege lords, and that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly: but this advantage was given up by Richard I. Vide lord Lyttelton's Hiſtory of Henry II. vol. v. p. 220. 223. 235. 8vo edit.

appli-

applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely ſigned it, but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, juſt as he had a glimpſe of reſuming his authority. Without diſputing what hiſtorians have ſaid of his arbitrary, inconſtant, and cruel diſpoſition, it is evident, from the ſame relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable at the ſame time, that under John, the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a moſt ſurpriſing increaſe. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he eſtabliſhed and endowed all over his kingdom; and it was under him that the ſtone bridge as it ſtood ſome years ago, was finiſhed acroſs the Thames at London. The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuſe a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common-council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The French king all this time kept poſſeſſion of Normandy; but at home the power and influence of the pope became very exorbitant; and he ſent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy at one time, in the year 1240, to take poſſeſſion of the beſt Engliſh benefices, and to load the people with taxes. This evil was increaſed by Henry marrying the daughter of the earl of Provence; a needy prince, whoſe poor relations engroſſed the beſt eſtates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a ſoft, pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he ſeemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An aſſociation of the barons was formed againſt him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons, and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort who had married his ſiſter, and was made earl of Leiceſter, being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort, and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Eveſham, Auguſt 4th, 1265,

and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed now part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe, and this gave the firſt blow to feudal tenures in England; but hiſtorians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the Engliſh parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a cruſade, Henry during his abſence, died in 1272, the ſixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-ſixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet to the ſtruggles of this reign, the people in great meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day. During his reign, the principal cuſtoms aroſe from the importation of French and Rheniſh wines, the Engliſh being as yet ſtrangers to thoſe of Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Intereſt had in that age mounted to an enormous height, as might be expected from the barbariſm of the times, and men's ignorance of commerce, which was ſtill very low, though it ſeems to have increaſed ſince the Conqueſt. There are inſtances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England notwithſtanding the greivous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1275 Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatned to hang them if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom, But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,00 marks; and if I had ſaid 300,000, I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon prince Edward 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Briſtol; and on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely diſuſed, and that by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law treatiſe was publiſhed in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats (See Rymer's Fœdera.) Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the ſolemnity, and on the occaſion 500 horſes were let looſe, for all that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous mortmain act, whereby all perſons "were reſtrained from giving by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to (thoſe *ſo called*) religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the cinque ports, which, though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips, each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of Prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon.

Though he encouraged foreigners to trade with England, yet the aggregate body of every particular nation reſiding here, became anſwerable for the miſdemeanors of every individual perſon of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament, and their manner of giving aids towards the nation's defence, as they now ſtand, with very little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his ſubjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great uſurers and money-dealers of the times, he expelled them out of England, and ſeized all their immoveable eſtates. I have in the article of Scotland mentioned the unjuſtifiable manner in which he aboliſhed the independency of that kingdom; but on the other hand, it muſt be acknowledged that he held the balance of power in Europe, and employed the vaſt ſums he raiſed from his ſubjects, for the aggrandizement of his crown and people. He had frequent wars abroad, eſpecially with France, in which he was not very ſucceſsful; and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons and great nobility, had they not been ſo ſtrong.

His vaſt connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glaſſes and ſpectacles; though they are ſaid to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay, and mark of the goldſmith's company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himſelf and the Engliſh, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the ſixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was upon a freſh expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintenance of what is called the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhewed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveſton, his chief minion, a Gaſcon, being baniſhed by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter of the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had loſt in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland excepting the caſtle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat that England ever ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a ſpy upon the king, but he ſoon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was baniſhed, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Wincheſter. The queen, a furious ambitious woman, perſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many noble patriots, with their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at laſt ſhe became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active of the anti royaliſt

lords. A breach between her and the Spenſers ſoon followed, and going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that, returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was moſt barbarouſly murdered in Berkley-caſtle, by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

It muſt however be admitted, that the misfortunes of Edward II. were in a great degree brought upon himſelf by his imprudence and miſconduct. His government was ſometimes extremely arbitrary, and he was too much engroſſed by favourites, who led him into ſanguinary meaſures. It was alſo a misfortune to him, that he was not a match for Robert Bruce, king of Scotland; in conſequence of whoſe military and political abilities, and their own civil contentions, the Engliſh loſt that kingdom. But it has been alleged in his favour, that none of his predeceſſors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and that he protected his trading ſubjects with great ſpirit againſt the Hanſeatic league and the neighbouring powers. Upon an average, the difference of living then and now, ſeems to be nearly at 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or coin of the ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a gooſe then coſt 2d. ½, that is 7d. ½ of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now coſt 3s. 9d. The knights Templars were ſuppreſſed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power, by executing many popular meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his ſiſter, and he was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary king of Scotland, and general, and did the ſame homage to Edward for Scotland, as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue), who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by ſucceſſion; but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt-mentioned kings of France and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred, but the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion, the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen on the other hand, having now vaſt property,

perty to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſes, and proper ſubordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, uſing it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto *Dieu & mon droit*, "God and my right." At Creſſy, Auguſt 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but ſixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights and one eſquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the Engliſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs with which the prince treated his royal priſoners, formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy was fought, and remained a priſoner eleven years. Thus Edward had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed, David for 100,000 marks and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince †, from his wearing that armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him; for he died, diſpirited and obſcure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51ſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Europe better than Edward did, and he was one of the beſt and moſt illuſtrious kings that ſat on the Engliſh throne. Having ſet his heart on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands, for protection and ſecurity to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhauſted his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of eſtabliſhing

† He was alſo the firſt in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father duke of Cornwall; and ever ſince, the eldeſt ſon of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

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the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the preceding reign; and few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of property in England, villanage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed whether Edward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor, was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people in that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time; they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune to a man; which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks and ſtations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines, which had generally paſſed for certain and undiſputed, during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reſerved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finiſhing blow to Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt the evil deſigns of the pope and biſhops, by John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, one of the king's ſons, and other great men. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. ſon of the Black Prince, was no more than eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villans, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball a prieſt, Wat Tyler, Jack

Jack Straw, and others, the loweſt of the people. The conduct of theſe inſurgents was very violent, and in many reſpects extremely unjuſtifiable; but it cannot juſtly be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppreſſions, particularly a *poll-tax*, and had abundant reaſon to be diſcontented with the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malecontents, to death, in the midſt of his adherents. This, with the ſeaſonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the inſurrection for that time; but it broke out with the moſt bloody effects in other parts of England, and though it was ſuppreſſed by making many examples of ſeverity among the inſurgents, yet the common people never afterwards loſt ſight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained thoſe privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the ſuppreſſion of thoſe rebels, have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of his dominions on a ſure foundation; but he delivered himſelf up to worthleſs favourites, particularly Michael de la Pole, ſon to a merchant of London, whom he created earl of Suffolk and lord chancellor, judge Treſilian, and above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created marquis † of Dublin and duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard ſtooped in vain to the moſt ignoble meaſures to ſave them. They were attainted, and condemned to ſuffer as traitors. The chief juſtice Treſilian was hanged at Tyburn, but de la Pole, and the duke of Ireland eſcaped abroad, where they died in obſcurity. Richard then aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than any king of England ever had been, when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaſter by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party formed in England, the natural reſult of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaſter the crown. He landed from France at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Engliſh. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects, whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct; and ſoon after he is ſuppoſed to have been ſtarved to death in priſon, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no iſſue by either of his two marriages.

Though the nobility of England were poſſeſſed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate boldly in parliament

† The firſt who bore the title of Marquis in England.

againſt

againſt the uſury, which was but too much practiſed in England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity; and the deſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the Fourth *, ſon of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him among his great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Glouceſter and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was underſtood by the Percy family, the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon the famous Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to ſalve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which till then had diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden, carrying on an immenſe trade all over Europe, but with the Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time at a much lower paſs in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me; or, As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed." By the influence of the court and the in-

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth, and having croſſed himſelf on his forehead and on his breaſt, and called upon the name of Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

*In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this rewme of Ynglande, and the crown, with all the membris, and the appurtenances; als I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode* (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming from the gude king Henry therde and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with helpe of my, and of my frendes, to recover it; the which rewme was in poynt to be ondone by defaut of gouvernance, and ondoying of the gude lawes.*

triguers

trigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſions of parliament 1401 for the burning of heretics, occaſioned by the great increaſe of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtre, pariſh prieſt of St. Oſithe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and ſheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were exceſſively numerous, and ſir John Oldcaſtle, and lord Cobham, having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundleſs accuſation, from a bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in conſequence of it. His only real crime ſeems to have been, the ſpirit with which he oppoſed the ſuperſtition of the age, and he was the firſt of the nobility who ſuffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a conteſt with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been raviſhed from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward III. and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he firſt took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled thoſe of Creſſy and Poictiers in glory to the Engliſh, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catharine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her huſband's life, and him and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, which muſt at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the dauphin with vaſt ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head. Henry however made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful had he not died of a pleuretic diſorder, 1422, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V.'s vaſt ſucceſſes in France revived the trade of England, and at the ſame time increaſed and eſtabliſhed the privileges and liberties of the Engliſh commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty-four years of age, it is hard to ſay, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly diſtracted by the diviſions among its princes; but whether this would have been of ſervice or prejudice to the growing liberties of his Engliſh ſubjects, we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the ſame with the revenues in Henry III.'s time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the courſe of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted

amounted to 52,507l. ſo that the king had of ſurplus only 3,207l. for the ſupport of his houſhold, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embaſſies, and other articles. This ſum was not nearly ſufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miſerable ſhifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels and ſometimes the crown itſelf: he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention theſe particulars, that the reader may judge of the ſimplicity and temperance of our predeceſſors three centuries ago, when the expences of the greateſt king in Europe were ſcarcely equal to the penſion of a ſuperannuated courtier of the preſent age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England. Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old, when, in conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France, as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, both of them princes of great accompliſhments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory, ſhe being born of the loweſt extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and ſometimes a helper in ſtables at public inns. She muſt notwithſtanding, have poſſeſſed an amazing fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of Compiegne, who burnt her alive for a witch at Roan, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed for the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon; and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right, but acted

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at firſt with a moſt profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profeſſed enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſh-men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be perfectly ſecure againſt the duke of York. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends: but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſſed the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity aſſembled an army; but the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more and more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament upon this being aſſembled, it was enacted, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromiſe. She retreated northwards, and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and ſlain in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York and his party openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the ſecond battle of St. Alban's, ſhe delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northwards. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her huſband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

It may be proper to obſerve, that this civil war was carried on with greater animoſity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as bloodthirſty

thirſty as her opponents, and when priſoners on either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the conceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of ſir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's beſt friend became his moſt formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now ſettled on the throne, was guilty of the utmoſt cruelty to all the Lancaſtrian party, whom he put to death, whenever he could find them, ſo that they were threatened with utter extermination.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond, He was deſcended from John Beaufort, the eldeſt ſon of the earl of Somerſet, who was the eldeſt ſon of John of Gaunt, by his laſt wife Catherine Swineford, but born in adultery, during her huſband's life-time. This diſability, however, was afterwards removed both by the pope and by the parliament, and the deſcendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The laſt lord, John, duke of Somerſet, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, ſon of the widow of Henry V. by Owen Tudor, a Welch gentleman whom ſhe ſo far deſcended as to marry; and their ſon was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.), who, at the time I treat of, lived in France, to ſecure himſelf from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may ſee, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the ſmalleſt claim in blood (even ſuppoſing the illegitimacy of his anceſtors had been removed) to the crown of England.

The kingdom of England was, in 1474, in a deplorable ſituation. The king was immerſed in expenſive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men; who, to ſupport their extravagancies, became penſioners to the French king. The parliament ſeemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The beſt blood

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in England was ſhed on ſcaffolds; and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealouſy. Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expences of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandiſe; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilations from the French or Monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh, than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littelton, judge of the Common Pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baſtardize her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

There can ſcarcely be a doubt but that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by hiſtorians. He was exemplary in his diſtributive juſtice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whoſe oppreſſions he aboliſhed, and was a father to the common people. He founded the ſociety of heralds; an inſtitution, which, in his time, was found neceſ-

ſary to prevent diſputes among great families. During his reign, ſhort as it was, we have repeated inſtances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than ſeventy-two different kinds being prohibited importation by one act. He was the firſt Engliſh king who appointed a conſul for the ſuperintendency of Engliſh commerce abroad; one Strozzi being nominated for Piſa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Engliſhmen imported to, or exported from thence. I ſhall not enter into the ſubject of the concern he had in the ſuppoſed murder of his two nephews, but only obſerve, that the temporizing parliament, by baſtardizing them, cut them off from the ſucceſſion of the crown.

Though the ſame act of baſtardy affected the daughters, as well as the ſons of the late king, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the moſt ſagacious monarch that ever had reigned in England; but, at the ſame time, the moſt jealous of his power; for he ſhut up the earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a cloſe priſoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alleged againſt him but his propinquity to the houſe of York. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and in imitation of his predeceſſor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed; as was the impoſture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the impriſoned earl of Warwick: Simnel was taken priſoner, and after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects. They expreſſed their gratitude by the great ſupplies and benevolences they afforded him, and, as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act paſſed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, though its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had broken with irreſiſtible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were ſoon extinguiſhed in England.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York,

York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland diſmiſſed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldeſt daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is ſaid, that Perkin made a confeſſion of his impoſtures before his death; but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions at preſent; ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of repleniſhing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant him ſubſidies for foreign alliances, which he intended not to purſue.

I have already mentioned the vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign. His exceſſive love of money, and his avarice was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus, whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet out upon the diſcovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a paſſage of thirty-three days, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry however made ſome amends by encouraging Cabot a Venetian, who diſcovered the main land of North America in 1496; and we may obſerve to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterprizes which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt have been prodigiouſly advanced before Henry's death; an inſtance of this is given in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; alſo,

for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight perſons), 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and clothing; and for the maintenance of ſeven horſes, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſe 2l. 7s. 0d. ½ yearly, money being ſtill 1 ½ times as weighty as our modern ſilver coin, Wheat was that year no more than 3s. 4d a quarter, which anſwers to 5s. of our money, conſequently it was about ſeven times as cheap as at preſent; ſo that had all other neceſſaries been equally cheap, ſhe could have lived as well as on 1260l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but it is certain that he neglected thoſe advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſupply, he did not improve Cabot's diſcoveries, and he ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of all France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a *navy royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure), led him into incredible expences. He was on all occaſions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the pooreſt prince in Europe; and early in his reign he gave himſelf alſo entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolſey, who was the ſon of a butcher at Ipſwich, but educated at Oxford, and made dean of Lincoln by Henry VII. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland. who had invaded England; and Henry became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burdens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay, how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by ſcruples of conſcience, or averſion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs, ruined Wolſey, who died heart-broken, after being ſtripped of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions.

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A perplexing, though nice conjunction of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations; and in many reſpects he acted in the moſt arbitrary manner, his wiſhes, however unreaſonable, being too readily complied with, in conſequence of the ſhameful ſervility of his parliaments. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry, by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſticol property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and ſeldom any long time paſſed without being marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny.—Among others, was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 3cool. a year. His fifth wife was Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was queen Catherine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe had narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on Proteſtants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, in 1547, in the 56th year of his age and the 38th of his reign.

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjuſt and arbitrary power he frequently aſſumed, in many reſpects for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, which is another name for learning itſelf. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer:

and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king inſtead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the ſee of Rome. Much of the popiſh leaven, however, ſtill remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms; a meaſure which the late king had recommended with his dying breath to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkey, but the match never took place; and the factions now forming againſt the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who had married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies; and ſhe dying, he made his addreſſes to the princeſs Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector, to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block, where he loſt his head.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vaſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was upon the whole a weak, but conſcientious man, was ſo intent upon religion, that he was firſt driven from the helm of ſtate, and then loſt his head upon a ſcaffold, by a faction formed equally of Papiſts and pretended Proteſtants. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a ſincere Proteſtant, into many impolitic acts; ſo that, upon the whole, England made but an inconſiderable figure in this reign, compared with what it had done at other periods.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation, which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome cruel ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame, and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and alſo ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhew the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a deep conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will, for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but

but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recogniſed the claim of the princeſs Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her huſband lord Guildford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, who alſo ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-eſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him inſtrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner biſhop of London, and Gardiner biſhop of Wincheſter, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her Proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary now married Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that by the marriage articles, proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames (ſays a contemporary writer of credit), were burnt to aſhes, one archbiſhop, 4 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 huſbandmen, ſervants and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire." Several alſo died in priſon, and many were otherwiſe cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and ſoul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties. To mention every glorious action of her reign, would far exceed my bounds; I ſhall therefore here only touch on the great lines of her government.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facility; for in her firſt parliament, in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. And it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refuſed to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title,

ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the former, and her other miſconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had been often promiſed a ſafe and honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without ſufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarniſhes the glories of her reign.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed, in fact, the main buſineſs of her government, they exhibit different ſcenes of wonderful events, partly ariſing from her own maſterly conduct, partly from the ſagacity of her ſtateſmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by ſea and land.

The ſame Philip, who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe dexterouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negociations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She ſometimes ſupported the proteſtants of France, againſt their perſecuting princes and the papiſts; and ſhe ſometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, that it ſhewed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. No reader can be ſo uninformed as to be ignorant of the conſequences, that the largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea officers under him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days; and that the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and that few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency upon Spain; and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raliegh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into

into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures taken from the Spaniards into England.

After the death of the earl of Leiceſter, the young earl of Eſſex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz in Spain, deſtroyed the ſhips in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age, grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure, and this occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the ſeventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions for the ſame reaſon, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vaſco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had uſually recourſe to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was ſo low, that, beſides the exorbitant intereſt of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the ſecurity. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the Grand Signior had always conceived England to be a dependent province of France. About 1590 there were in London four perſons only rated in the ſubſidy book ſo high as 400l. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 ſtrangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it: for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans, debarred them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered death, muſt be condemned. Before I cloſe this ſhort account of her reign, I am to obſerve, that through the practices of the Spaniards with the Iriſh Roman catholics, ſhe found great difficulty to keep that iſland in ſubjection, and at the time of her death her government there had gone into great diſorder.

We can ſcarcely require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities

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for government; but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been occaſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe of Tudor; and which various cauſes had prevented the people from oppoſing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhauſted by the long and deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York, in the courſe of which, the ancient nobility were in great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themſelves in the miſeries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal ſentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffuſed through England. It is needleſs, perhaps, to point out the vaſt increaſe of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great conſequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that meaſure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he ſhewed no violent reſentment at the diſappointmont. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon *.

I have already taken notice, in former parts of this work, of the obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince; and, in

* This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was alſo expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. The manner of enliſting any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtering the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near eighteen months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long wiſhed-for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance in parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gun-powder; and it was judged adviſeable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament; but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault, under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeized him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigotted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a Jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr. The above letter to lord Mounteagle hath long been ſuppoſed to be an artifice of Cecil's, his firſt miniſter, and that the king and himſelf received full intimation of the plot from Henry IV. of France, by the marquis de Sully. So they let the conſpirators work on till all was prepared for the ſtroke, and they might know all their ſtrength.

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fact, he laid the foundations of great national advantages. That his pedantry was ridiculous, cannot be denied; and it is certain that he had no juſt ideas of the Engliſh conſtitution and liberties, which led him into many abſurd diſputes with his parliament: and he and his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price, made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay ſuch a ſum, and inſtituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts with eccleſiaſtical caſuiſts, in which he proved himſelf more of a theologian than a prince, and in 1617 he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, it was eventually productive of many bleſſings to England and though his perpetual negociations have given riſe to much ſatire againſt his perſon and government, yet they were leſs expenſive and deſtructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He reſtored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon diſcharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain at the ſame time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in marriage to the Elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved, that he always oppoſed his ſon-in law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſame, excepting the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 men under ſir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general, and that the elector hurt his own cauſe by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. He married the counteſs of Eſſex, who had obtained a divorce from her huſband, and was with her found guilty of poiſoning ſir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary, as is ſaid, to a ſolemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave ſir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon, Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded

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to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and againſt the king's will, they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands: and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match; and it is thought that had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. As to the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already deſcribed. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point. Mr. Middleton alſo at this time projected the conveying water into the city from Hertfordſhire by means of pipes, which is now called the *New River*.

Charles I was unfortunate in his marriage with the princeſs Henrietta Maria. He ſeems at firſt to have been but a cold lover; and he quarrelled with, and ſent back her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. But ſhe ſoon acquired a great aſcendancy over him; for ſhe was high-ſpirited and artful. She diſdained and diſliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian and arbitrary education, and was a diſagreeable wife, notwithſtanding her huſband's ſubmiſſion and tenderneſs. The ſpirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles early gave ſuch indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own deſpotic temper, that the parliament was remiſs in furniſhing him with money for carrying on the war. In a ſhort time Buckingham perſuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots, in their quarrel with that crown. They were ſo ill ſupported, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the proteſtant intereſt received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miſcarriages and diſgraces were thrown, by the almoſt unanimous voice both of the parliament and people, upon the favourite; but he ſheltered himſelf from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which ſoon after ſurrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age, juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt

againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr Selden, who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances; upon which Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns where the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not all underſtood, levied monies upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtrictures againſt the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe pieces in the ſtar-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and puniſhed with ſo much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignation againſt the authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government rendered ſtill more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and in the year 1637 to introduce epiſcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England, in Auguſt, 1640, where Charles was ſo ill ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being ſincere in obſerving the terms, and Charles diſcovering that ſome of their great men had offered to throw themſelves under the protection of the French king, he raiſed a freſh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with ſo bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpoſe, that it did him no ſervice; on the contrary, it encouraged the commons to riſe in their demands. He had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, preſident of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland: and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Strafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to the court, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf ſo vigorouſly in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, that he became an object of public deteſtation. As lord preſident of the North, as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and as a miniſter and privy-counſellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. He was, in conſequence, at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much againſt the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to ſign the warrant for his execution. Archbiſhop Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a conſiderable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

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In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament for the future ſecurity of the liberty of the ſubject, which eſtabliſhed particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax or ſuch like charge, without common conſent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtances, ſo that an univerſal diſcontent at his adminiſtration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion alſo broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the Proteſtants, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, to the amount of many thouſands, were maſſacred by the Papiſts; and great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charles ſecretly favoured them out of hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were expelled the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtantly oppoſing the deſigns and bills of the other houſe; and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented Scots. Charles was ill enough adviſed to go in perſon to the houſe of commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haſelrig, and Mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the alarm, and received the accuſed members into its protection. The train-bands were raiſed, and the mobs were ſo unruly that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkſhire, where he raiſed an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the houſe of commons, might raiſe in and about London.

Notwithſtanding the many acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the king and his miniſters had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and conſidered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed intereſt was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by moſt of the trading towns and corporations; but its great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a brave, but not an enterpriſing commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the aſcendancy, but in the progreſs of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edge-hill in Warwickſhire, the 23d of October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles, for the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly entered England anew, with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies were ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, and continued to carry on the war againſt him with great animoſity. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to increaſe and to figure at Weſtminſter. They were averſe to the Preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the war againſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver

Cromwell,

Cromwell, that a plan was formed for diſmiſſing tha earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter, and the heads of the Preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, ſuppoſing that they were not for bringing the war to a ſpeedy end, or not for reducing the king too low, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a Preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with reſentment and loſs on both ſides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on September 20th, 1643, and the other October 27, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes; and having defeated Sir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea; but his infantry ſurrendered themſelves priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marſton-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Mancheſter defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been retrieved by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the Weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſtring of miſtakes, till at laſt his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot during the war, and the heads of the Preſbyterian party would have agreed to terms that very little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents, who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, inſincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded, in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter, that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts ruſhed into ruin. Sir Thomas Fairfax, whoſe father, lord Fairfax, remained in the North, was at the head of the army, which was now new-modelled; ſo that Charles by peace-meal loſt all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the deciſive battle of Naſeby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as uſual, to the miſconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with freſh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark; and no good underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians, but the beſt and moſt loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy ſituation of his affairs, he eſcaped in diſguiſe from Oxford and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promiſe of protection. The Scots, however were ſo intimidated, by the reſolutions of the parliament at Weſtminſter, and in conſideration of 400,000l. of their arrears to be paid, they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commiſſioners, probably not ſuſpecting the conſequences.

The preſbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king, but they were no longer maſters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of the commiſſioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might ſtill take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian members, voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, and moſt of them officers of the army. In the mean

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while Charles, who unhappily promiſed himſelf relief from thoſe diſſenſions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the iſle of Wight. A freſh negociation was begun, and almoſt finiſhed, when the independents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, and ſtrongly perſuaded of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeized upon his perſon, brought him a priſoner to London, carried him before a court of juſtice of their own erecting, and, after an extraordinary trial his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and ſome have ſuppoſed, that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, that had he been reſtored to his throne he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinſtated in power. It is however certain, that, notwithſtanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the courſe of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cauſe, in which they loſt their lives and fortunes. We cannot reflect upon the great loſs of lives, to the amount at leaſt of 100,000 fighting men, during the ſix years of the civil war, without being inclined to think that England was more populous then, than it is now. Though the hiſtory of that period has been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the very beſt opportunities to know the true ſtate of the nation, yet we do not find that the loſs of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exerciſe of the common arts of life, and proviſions rather ſunk than roſe in their value. The ſurviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry duke of Glouceſtor, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration, the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally reduced the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame

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commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation; and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated ſubordination to a republic, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten, for which reaſon he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers, and diſſolved the parliament, opprobriouſly driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new-model the government, and various were the ſchemes that were propoſed, eſtabliſhed, and proved abortive: but thoſe ſchemes were temporary, and ſuited to each juncture; and it was by his management of the army that he did every thing. He was openly or ſecretly thwarted by people of property all over England; and, however dazzled hiſtorians have been with his amazing fortune and power, it appears from the beſt evidences, that, during the continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually diſtreſſed for money to keep the wheels of his government going.

His wants at laſt led him into the error of taking part with France againſt Spain, in hopes that the rich Spaniſh prizes would ſupply him with ready money. He lent the French court 6000 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their aſſiſtance from the Spaniards, he took poſſeſſion of it. Finding that his uſurpation gave as much diſcontent to his own party as terror to the royaliſts, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the conſtitution, and actually erected a houſe of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult his ſecretary Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell abo-

liſhed, and who, as it were, inſtantaneouſly called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any fixed plan of legiſlation, and his ſafety was owing to the different ſentiments of government, that prevailed among the heads of the republic. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thouſand pounds; of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year, Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and the ſoccage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions, three hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole it apppears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſymptom of increaſing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was now planned and eſtabliſhed, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant ſchemes, having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations we may add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increaſe their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for ſome time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many inſtances interpoſed effectually in favour of the Proteſtants abroad. Arts and ſciences were not much patronized, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praiſe, and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſeveral parts of adminiſtration; ſo he paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe entruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father Oliver as protector, ſufficiently proves, the great difference there was between them, as to ſpirit and parts in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was ſoon after driven, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition, into obſcurity. It is in vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſubſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. The Preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting it, but it was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who ſeemed to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient conſtitution of monarchy.

narchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt, had the ſagacity to obſerve this; and after temporizing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in reſtoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign ſeemed to have a real deſire to promote his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence, and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England the culture of many elegant vegetables; ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the Engliſh under the auſpices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. In ſhort Charles knew and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence; failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He appeared to intereſt himſelf in the ſufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and it being rebuilt with greater luſtre and conveniences, is a proof of the increaſe of her trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expences. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. ſterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defenſible than in his ſecret connections with France, which were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and ſuch as muſt ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk; a man of extenſive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters, but whom he ſacrificed to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's miſapplication of the public money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England, by ſailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and deſtroyed ſeveral capital ſhips of war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States general, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was ſo ill adviſed as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to ſhut up the Exchequer. This was an indefenſible ſtep; and Charles pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and

had almoſt proved fatal to that republic, for in this war, the Engliſh fleet and army acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet, and diſplayed great gallantry in that ſtation. The duke of Monmuth, the eldeſt and favourite natural ſon of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome very unforeſeen circumſtances. All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained by ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular clamour at laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In ſome things Charles acted very deſpotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up, but in a few days after they were opened again. Great rigour and ſeverity were exerciſed againſt the Preſbyterians, and all other nonconformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was again eſtabliſhed with a high hand in Scotland as well as England. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a penſioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be abſolute. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increaſed, and Charles entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

Charles's connections in France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exaſperated againſt the French and the Papiſts; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered any conceſſions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon ſuch a revolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined that the duke of York never ſhould reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and ſome others, opened a plot, charging the Papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jeſuits in England, and from St. Omer's Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more ſelf-contradictory, than ſome parts of their narrative, yet it was ſupported with the utmoſt zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman ſecretary to the duke of York, with many Jeſuits, and other papiſts, were publicly executed on evidences, ſuppoſed now to have been perjured, by thoſe who will have the whole plot to be a fiction. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced, as it is ſaid, that the whole was an impoſture, yielded to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the ill-adviſed duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree.

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The Duke of York and his party made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory. They trumped up on their ſide a plot of the proteſtants for killing and ſeizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that which had been laid againſt the papiſts. The excellent lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the popiſh ſucceſſion, Algernon Sidney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, were tried, condemned, and ſuffered death, and the king ſet his foot on the neck of oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendants of his natural ſons and daughters, are now amongſt the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Britiſh nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, I have been ſufficiently explicit as to the principles, both of the king and the oppoſition to his government. The heads of the latter were preſbyterians and moderate churchmen, who had been greatly inſtrumental in the civil war againſt the late king, and the uſurpations that followed. They had been raiſed and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being uſeful in bringing their party into his meaſures; and he would probably have ſucceeded, had not the remains of the old royaliſts, and the diſſipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleaſure. The preſbyterians, however, availed themſelves of their credit, in the early part of his reign when the fervour of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament ſuch a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneaſy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them that civil liberty, and proteſtantiſm, now exiſt in the Engliſh government. On the other hand, they ſeem to have carried their jealouſy of a popiſh ſucceſſor too far; and many of the people without doors certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been ſatisfied with the legal reſtraints and diſabilities which Charles offered to impoſe upon his ſucceſſor. This gave ſuch a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, almoſt maſters of the laws and liberties of England: and they governed in an abſolute and arbitrary manner, ſupported by the clergy's preaching up the old doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance, and the flattering addreſſes preſented from many perſons advancing the prerogative of the crown to the moſt extravagant height.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witneſs the ſtyle of their ſermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics and natural philoſophy. Charles loved

and underſtood the arts, more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince, who formed a body of ſtanding forces, as guards to his perſon; it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, ſoon after his death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the proteſtant faith, was a papiſt and died ſuch, of which there are now inconteſtible proofs.

All the oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and as ſuch had aſſumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn and quartered, in the Weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity ſcarcely ever known in this country, by the inſtrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James deſperately reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment failed him. He made the moſt provoking ſteps to render popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court, he openly received and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emiſſaries, and gave them more reſpect than was due to the miniſters of a ſovereign prince. He ſent an embaſſy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almoſt beyond deſcription, and were diſapproved of by the pope himſelf, and all ſober Roman catholics. His ſending to priſon, and proſecuting for a libel, ſeven biſhops, for preſenting a petition againſt reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his beſt proteſtant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and ſon-in law of James, having married the princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter; and he at laſt embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore the church and ſtate to their due rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who ſoon diſcovered that he expected the crown. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries, and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign rather than not reſtore popery.

popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen, and ſon, real or pretended, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the Revolution*.

This ſhort reign affords little matter for the national progreſs in its true intereſts. James is allowed, on all hands, to have underſtood them, and that, had it not been for his popiſh bigotry, and arbitrary principles, he would have been a moſt excellent king of England. The writings of the Engliſh divines againſt popery, in his reign, are eſteemed to be the moſt maſterly pieces of controverſy that ever were publiſhed on that ſubject.

Had it not been for the baleful influence of the Jeſuits over James, the prince of Orange might have found his views upon the crown fruſtrated. The conduct of James gave him advantages, which he could not otherwiſe have hoped for. Few were in the prince's ſecret, and when a convention of the ſtates was called, there ſeemed reaſon to believe, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princeſs of Orange. Even then it was not done without long debates. It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expence ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured: though the friends of liberty in general complained, that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been inſiſted on, in a period ſo favourable to the enlargement and ſecurity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of the people. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore now divided, part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was that year near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,94 tons, was in 1688 increaſed to 101,032 tons. The increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England was in the ſame proportion. It was therefore no wonder, if a ſtrong party, both in the parliament and nation, was formed againſt the government, which was hourly increaſed by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expence, and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France, proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invaſions were threatned, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal gave the higheſt valuations, and were the heavieſt taxed, and this prepoſterous burthen ſtill continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operation in finances, that ever took place, was eſtabliſhed in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary ſecurities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this ſcheme is ſaid to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for ſuch a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the Revolution intereſt, becauſe, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by ſupporting that intereſt, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious. How well thoſe views have been anſwered is needleſs here to obſerve, being already mentioned in the preſent ſtate of public credit.

William, notwithſtanding the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auſpices, particularly in the eſtabliſhment of the bank of England, and the recoining the ſilver money, met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France, but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen *, but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, all but an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It is thought that William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſters were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the 12th of June 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall he had from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the 8th of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding, he ſeemed alſo ſometimes almoſt to

* She died of the ſmall-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

loſe

loſe ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he often favoured the tories. The former had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe who had acted the moſt inimical to their party, and the free principles of the conſtitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour and reſume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended, to ſilence all enquiries into the guilt of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in the cruel perſecutions of the paſt reign, and to the obtaining ſuch an act of indemnity as effectually ſcreened every delinquent from the juſt retaliation of injured patriotiſm. The reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death amounted to the unheard-of ſum of 14,000,000.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, by virtue of the act of ſettlement, and being the next Proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded king William in the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the partition treaty, to which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance, that ſtill ſubſiſts, between France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter, and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

In the courſe of the war, ſeveral glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and

20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, ſir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramillies in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported; it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recogniſed Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was Oudenarde, 1708, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a very bloody action, in which the French loſt 15,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral; but he had truſted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant, and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the houſe of commons were put into very bad humour, nor did things ſeem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immenſe ſums raiſed for the current ſervice of the year being ſeverely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, it appeared that England had born the chief burthen of the war; that neither the Auſtrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furniſhed their ſtipulated quotas, and that they truſted to the Engliſh parliament for making them good. A noble deſign, which had been planned at the court, and was to have been executed by the aſſiſtance of the fleet of England, for taking Toulon, at a vaſt expence, miſcarried through the ſelfiſhneſs of the court of Vienna, whoſe chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the ſame time England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

Theſe and many other internal diſputes about the prerogative, the ſucceſſion, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferments in the nation and parliament. The queen at firſt ſtuck cloſe to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the tories inclined to treat with France, put themſelves at the head of the whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents, according to their ſtations, received immenſe emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not however be longer diſſembled, and the perſonal intereſt of the ducheſs of Marlborough, with the queen, began to be ſhaken by her own haughtineſs.

As Lewis XIV. profeſſed a readineſs for peace, and ſued earneſtly for it, the whigs at laſt gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at

at Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy by the French. It ſoon appeared that the French, if not the Engliſh plenipotentiaries, were not in earneſt; the Dutch were entirely guided by the duke of Marlborough. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, excepting that of employing his own troops againſt the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued ſtill doubtful. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his aſſociate, as only deſigned to amuſe and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg (as ſome term it) and the then expected change of the miniſtry in England, ſaved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ridiculous impracticable doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's caſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough, and the Whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greateſt imprudence, and excited the aſtoniſhment of all Europe. So numerous had been his ſucceſſes, and ſo great his reputation, that his very name was almoſt equivalent to an army. But the honour and intereſt of the nation were ſacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Maſham, a relation of the ducheſs of Marlborough, who had ſupplanted her benefactreſs, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not to be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been ſtill more indefenſible and ſhameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatorineſs, if not bad faith of the Engliſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford and lord high-treaſurer of England, was then conſidered as the queen's firſt miniſter; but the negociations for peace went alſo through the hands of Mr. Prior, and lord Bolingbroke, one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. The miniſtry

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endeavoured to ſtifle the complaints of the whigs, and the remonſtrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accuſed of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical ſituation. The whigs condemned the peace as injurious to the honour and intereſt of the nation. The majority of the houſe of lords was of that party, but that of the houſe of commons was tories. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exerciſe of her prerogative ſhe created twelve peers at one time, which ſecured the approbation of the parliament for the peace. Such was the ſtate of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the queen had, by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet been diſcovered, and was even concealed from ſome of her miniſters, inclined to call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her miniſters. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and ſhe was obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer, when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Auguſt 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign *. I have nothing to add to what I have already ſaid of her character, but that though ſhe was a favourite with neither party in her parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the tories affected to idolize her, yet her people dignified her with the name of the good queen Anne. Notwithſtanding all I have ſaid of the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any important reſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate, that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of the princeſs Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by

* And with her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for ſome time treated as ſuch by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He reſided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1774, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for ſome time, and afterwards reſided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his ſecond ſon, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York. March 28th, 1772, Charles married Louiſa Maximilienne, born Sept. 21ſt, 1752, daughter of a prince of the family of Stolberg Grudero, in the Circle of Upper Saxony, and grand-daughter by the mother, of Thomas Bruce, late earl of Ayleſbury.

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the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed the beginning of the next year. Some deluded noblemen and gentlemen in the North of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were ſurrounded at Preſton, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were ſent priſoners to London, where ſome of them ſuffered. The tories and Jacobites however raiſed mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England; but they were ſoon ſuppreſſed, by making their ringleaders, examples of juſtice. Lord Oxford was impriſoned for three years; but the capital proſecution of him by the whigs, for the hand he had in the peace of Utrecht, was ſecretly diſapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was ſitting, voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years, which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary power ever known, and a very indefenſible ſtep. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's title; and George I. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden been killed ſo critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpoſe, he being incenſed at George as elector of Hanover, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance, that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment, different from plague, peſtilence, and famine, overtook England in the year, 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South-Sea ſtock, one of the trading companies. This company was but of late erection, and was owing to a ſcheme of carrying on an excluſive trade, and making a ſettlement in the South-Seas, which had been formed in 1711. In 1720, the company obtained an act to increaſe their capital ſtock by redeeming the public debts; and was then inveſted with the aſſiento of negroes, which had been ſtipulated between Great Britain and Spain. In ſhort, it became ſo favourite a company, that it roſe to 310l. for 100l. before the bill had the royal aſſent in April; before the end of May to 500; and by the twentieth of June, their ſtock roſe to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000l. but before the end of September it fell to 150, by which thouſands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconſiderate avarice of the ſubſcribers, yet the public imagined that the miniſtry had contributed to the calamity; ſome of the direc-

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tors inſinuated as if the miniſters and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the addreſs to eſcape without cenſure, but the parliament paſſed a bill which confiſcated the eſtates of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance; a poor reparation for the public injuries.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent at the South-Sea ſcheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increaſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion, but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. There was ſome irregularity in the proceedings againſt him, and therefore the juſtice of the biſhop's ſentence has been queſtioned, though there is little or no reaſon to doubt there was ſufficient proof of his guilt. After the ferment of this plot had ſubſided, the miniſtry, who were all in the intereſt of Hanover, ventured upon ſeveral bold meaſures, in ſome of which the national intereſt, if not honour, was evidently ſacrificed to that electorate. The crown of Great Britain was engaged in every continental diſpute, however remote it was from her intereſt; and a difference ſtill ſubſiſting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it ſhould be decided by a congreſs to be held at Cambray, under the auſpices of France. This congreſs proved abortive, and England was involved in freſh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that in September 1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover, between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna, and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies, to watch the Spaniſh plate fleets. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe. The king, in his ſpeech to the parliament, publicly accuſed the emperor of a deſign to place the Pretender upon the throne of Great-Britain; but this was ſtrenuouſly denied by baron Palme, the imperial ambaſſador at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more laviſh in granting money, and enormous ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects to which it gave riſe, by which it was reckoned that almoſt a million and a half was won and loſt; and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund for diminiſhing the national debt, is likewiſe owing to this

this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died, and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, that Sir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt in the next general election. Having compromiſed all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embaſſies and negociations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the ſubſidies paid to the German princes for the ſecurity of Hanover, and had even the addreſs to obtain, from time to time, votes of credit for fulfilling his immediate engagements; and in the mean while, to amuſe the public, he ſuffered inquiries into the ſtate of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own power, to proceed.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, and paſſing the *Gin Act*, in the year 1736, increaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the increaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſter with great ſtrength of argument, and with great eloquence. In juſtice to Walpole, it ſhould be obſerved, that he filled the courts of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the known law of the kingdom. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous debate that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England never was more open or free than during his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade and the improvements of her manufactures.

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With regard to the king's own perſonal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his miniſter than his favourite; and his majeſty often hinted to him, as Walpole himſelf has been heard to acknowledge, that he was reſponſible for all meaſures of government. The debates concerning the Spaniſh depredations in the Weſt Indies, and the proofs that were brought to ſupport the complaints of the merchants, made at laſt an impreſſion even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the oppoſition, in both houſes of parliament, accuſed the miniſter of having, by the treaty of Seville, and other negociations, introduced a branch of the houſe of Bourbon into Italy, and depreſſed the houſe of Auſtria, the ancient and natural ally of England. They expoſed, with invincible force of eloquence and reaſoning, the injuſtice and diſgrace as well as loſs ariſing from the Spaniſh depredations, and the neceſſity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert ſtill adhered to his pacific ſyſtem, and concluded a ſhameful and indefenſible compromiſe under the title of a convention, with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter; but ſhe died November 20th, 1737, when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him; and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen, Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter, and after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the houſe, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th reſigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to all the Auſtrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but a headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743, and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions. This partiality created an univerſal flame in England; and a clamour raiſed againſt his lordſhip's meaſures was increaſed by the duke of Newcaſtle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other miniſters, who reſigned,

ſigned or offered to reſign their places, if lord Carteret ſhould retain his influence in the cabinet. His majeſty was obliged to give way to what he thought was the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the ſervices of ſome gentlemen who had never been conſidered as zealous friends to the houſe of Hanover. After various removals, Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the Treaſury, and appointed chancellor of the Exchequer, and conſequently was conſidered as firſt miniſter; or rather the power of the premierſhip was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcaſtle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies thought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, were thought by ſome to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who reſided at Rome; and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped, with a few followers, in a frigate to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this enterprize, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt of Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negociations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain; ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a moſt lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act againſt the French till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition, and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier of the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege, but by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, and miſconduct ſomewhere elſe, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men; though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with an immenſe treaſure (about a million ſterling), which he had taken from the

Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſburgh, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt, 1745, when the Pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurpriſed and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. I ſhall only add, to what hath been ſaid of the progreſs and ſuppreſſion of this rebellion, that it ſpread too great an alarm through England. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for ſuch there was at that time in England), had laid a deep ſcheme of diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it by receiving bank notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty, and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh at ſea, under the command of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed, under rear admiral Boſcawen, in the Eaſt Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh, during the war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſtries turned their thoughts to peace. The queſtion is not yet decided which party had greateſt reaſon to deſire it, the French and Spaniards for the immenſe loſſes they had ſuſtained by ſea, or the allies for the diſgraces they had ſuffered by land.

However this might be, preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April, 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the baſis of which was the reſtitution on both ſides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the Engliſh in this war, from its commencement to the ſigning the preliminaries of peace, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French; and that they loſt during the war, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ſhips taken from the Spaniards were immenſely rich; ſo that the balance, upon the whole, amounted to almoſt two millions in favour of the Engliſh. Such is the groſs calculation on both ſides; but the conſequences plainly proved that the loſſes of the French and Spaniards muſt have been much greater. The vaſt fortunes made by private perſons in England all of a ſudden, ſufficiently ſhewed that immenſe ſums had not been brought to the public account; but the greateſt proof was, that next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven

ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund. This was an æra of improvements: Mr. Pelham's candour and rectitude of adminiſtration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every ſcheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fiſheries; the benefits of which were felt during the ſucceeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent perſon, however, conſidered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed ceſſation of hoſtilities. The French employed themſelves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had laid a deep ſcheme for poſſeſſing themſelves of the Britiſh back ſettlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the Engliſh and the native Indians; in which caſe our colonies muſt have been reduced to a narrow ſlip on the coaſts, without the means of getting any ſubſiſtence but from the mother country. Fortunately for Great Britain, they diſcloſed their intention, by entering upon hoſtilities before they had power to ſupport them.

In the mean while a new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South-ſea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was aboliſhed, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubjects. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753, the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages: but whether it is for the benefit of the ſubject, is a point that is ſtill very queſtionable. The people of England about this time ſuſtained an immenſe loſs by the death of Mr. Pelham, who was one of the honeſteſt, wiſeſt, and beſt miniſters England had ever ſeen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the ſtreights of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8,000 of their beſt ſailors were brought into the kingdom. This well-timed meaſure had ſuch an effect, that the French had

neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ſhips of war; for about two years after, near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near fort du Queſne; but major general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The Engliſh at this time could not be ſaid to have any firſt miniſter; and ſome great men agreed in nothing but in oppoſing the meaſures of the cabinet, which had been undertaken without their conſent. The Engliſh navy in 1755 conſiſted of one ſhip of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four ſloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; beſides a great number of bomb-ketches, fire ſhips, and tenders; a force ſufficient to oppoſe the united marine ſtrength of all the powers of Europe. Whilſt that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ſhips then upon the ſtock, amounted to no more than ſix ſhips of 80 guns, twenty one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, ſix of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by thoſe invincible armaments, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been ſent out with a ſquadron at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galiſſionere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The Engliſh were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at thoſe events. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot to death at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power againſt the enemy.

It was about this time, that Mr. Pitt was placed as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of adminiſtration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be as ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, under colonel Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the preſent amazing extent of riches and territory, which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing

thing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It ſailed on the 8th of September, 1757; and admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October to St. Helen's, without the general making any attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted free of the public murmuring, ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter; who, to do him juſtice, did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engliſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a moſt powerful army, merely becauſe his Britannic majeſty refuſed to wink at their encroachments in America, the Engliſh parliament, in gratitude, voted large ſupplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but was ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms; and the French under the duke of Richlieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended from the French, remained ſtill in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758 a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia: in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000, to his Pruſſian majeſty: and alſo voted large ſums, amounting in the whole to two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burdenſome to England, was intended to unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general, who inſtantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted the French coaſts, by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 Britiſh troops, which were afterwards increaſed to 25,000. A war enſued, in the courſe of which the Engliſh every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious, but nothing deciſive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the moſt glorious perhaps in the Engliſh annals, in which about 7000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the concluſion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The Engliſh bore the expences of the war with chearfuneſs, and applauded Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration, becauſe their glorious ſucceſſes in every other part of the globe demonſtrated that he was in earneſt. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſburgh, in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the Engliſh: acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check which the Engliſh received at Ticonderago, and the loſs of above 300 of the Engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war called the Bien Aimé, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that they run her on ſhore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occaſion, and the Engliſh only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the third of Auguſt following, he engaged the French fleet a ſecond time near Pondicherry; when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry. The loſs of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded, and that of the Engliſh only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madras, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels Lawrence and Draper; and after a briſk cannonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Goree on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior force by Montcalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier-general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. It is to the honour of the miniſter, Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain: but, on the 8th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſt of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoubtable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on November 20, Sir Edward

Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the Juſte of 70 periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line, and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns which ran aſhore in the chace. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had, with three ſloops of war alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. Every day's gazette added to the accounts of the ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not bluſh publicly to avow. In ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry, to liſten to their propoſals. A negociation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was juſt rather than generous; and in matters of œconomy, either in his ſtate or his houſehold, he was willing to connive at abuſes, if they had the ſanction of law and cuſtom. By this means, thoſe miſmanagements about his court were multiplied to an enormous degree, and even under-clerks in offices amaſſed fortunes ten times greater than their legal ſalaries or perquiſites could raiſe. He was not very acceſſible to converſation, and therefore it was no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with ſir Robert Walpole's adminiſtration with great indifference, and ſhewed very little concern at the ſubſequent revolutions among his ſervants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the

faults of his miniſters. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. aſcended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour: he was in the bloom of youth, in his perſon tall and comely, and at the time of his acceſſion Great Britain was in the higheſt degree of reputation and proſperity, and the moſt ſalutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The firſt acts of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and ſir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France with ſuch eminent ability, and who had received the beſt information of the hoſtile intentions, and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. He urged his reaſons for this meaſure with his uſual energy; aſſerting, that, "this was the time for humbling the whole houſe of Bourbon;" and that if this opportunity was let ſlip, it might never be recovered. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themſelves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in law earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was ſuppoſed that the earl of Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in directing the education of the king, had acquired an aſcendency in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, ſaid, that "as he was called to the miniſtry by the voice of the people, to whom he conſidered himſelf as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a ſituation which made him reſponſible for meaſures that he was no longer allowed to guide." He, therefore, reſigned the ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the poſt which he held in the adminiſtration. But the next day, the king ſettled a penſion of three thouſand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the ſame time a title was conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and the penſion was to be continued for three lives. Theſe advantages and honours had unqueſtionably been well deſerved by his public ſervices; but his acceptance of them greatly leſſened his popularity, and many arts were employed to produce this effect. A very conſiderable degree of diſcontent notwithſtanding prevailed in the nation, on account of his removal from power:

* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate; and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals,

and

and it was extremely natural, that the people ſhould behold, with the utmoſt regret, the removal of a miniſter from the direction of public affairs, of whoſe ability and integrity they had the higheſt opinion, and in the midſt of a war, which he had conducted with ſo much honour to himſelf and to his country, and in a manner that had excited the aſtoniſhment of Europe.

The war ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour after the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, as ſecretary for the ſouthern department. It was at length alſo found indiſpenſably neceſſary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being now generally known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not for me to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negociations for peace were now reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible and adequate to the occaſion. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed at Weſtminſter and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty, the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi, (except the town of New Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it), was ſurrendered to us by France and Spain, in conſideration, of reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to France the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſirade; and in conſideration of our granting to the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland; and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded

yielded to us the iſlands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engroſſed the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that relates to the Eaſt Indies, was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh company; which reſtores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was reſtored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewiſe, the French reſtored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we reſtored to them the iſland of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and countermarches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expence of thirty millions ſterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſit down at the end of the war in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. And peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to be upon the ſame footing as before the war.

The war to which a period was now put, was the moſt brilliant, and diſtinguiſhed with the moſt glorious events in the Britiſh annals. No national prejudices, nor party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly Britiſh ſpirit by which the miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the ſoldier and ſeaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleaſed with the aſpect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purſe. The incredible ſums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe, than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleet and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though, it received the ſanction of a majority of both houſes of parliament, was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people. The manner in which it was begun, and the precipitation with which it was concluded, were condemned. The terms alſo were cenſured by many, as extremely inadequate to what might juſtly have been expected from the numerous victories and advantages which had been obtained againſt the enemy. And from this period various cauſes contributed to occaſion a great ſpirit of diſcontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's meſſengers entered the houſe of John Wilkes, eſq. member of parliament for Ayleſbury, and ſeized his perſon, by virtue of a warrant from the ſecretary of ſtate, which directed them to ſeize 'the authors, printers, and publiſhers, of a ſeditious and treaſonable paper, intitled the North Briton, No. 45.' The papers publiſhed under this title, ſeverely arraigned the conduct of the adminiſtration, and repreſented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the perſon from whom meaſures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained ſtrictures on the king's ſpeech. Mr. Wilkes was ſuſpected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into cuſtody by ſuch a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However he was forcibly carried before the ſecretaries of ſtate for examination, and they committed him cloſe priſoner to the Tower, his papers being

ing alſo ſeized. He was likewiſe deprived of his commiſſion as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be diſcharged. This affair made a great noiſe; people of all ranks intereſted themſelves in it, and Weſtminſter-hall reſounded with acclamations when he was ſet at liberty. An information, however, was filed againſt him in the court of King's Bench, at his majeſty's ſuit, as author of the North Briton, No 45. On the firſt day of the meeting of parliament, after theſe tranſactions, Mr. Wilkes ſtood up in his place, and made a ſpeech, in which he complained to the houſe, that in his perſon the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his impriſonment, the plundering of his houſe, and the ſeizure of his papers. The ſame day, a meſſage was ſent to acquaint the houſe of commons, with the information his majeſty had received, that John Wilkes, eſq. a member of that houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and dangerous libel, and the meaſures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde-park between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martin, another member of parliament, and ſecretary of the treaſury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a piſtol-bullet. Both houſes of parliament ſoon concurred in voting the North Briton, No 45, to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great oppoſition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take ſhelter in the Manſion-houſe. Another proſecution was commenced againſt Mr. Wilkes, for having cauſed an obſcene and profane poem to be printed, intitled, "An Eſſay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed; and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he ſhould continue to be proſecuted with the utmoſt rigour, when his wound was in ſome degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe of commons; verdicts were alſo given againſt him, both on account of the North Briton and the Eſſay on Woman, and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other perſons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publiſhing the North Briton; but ſome of them obtained verdicts againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made firſt lord of the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's adminiſtration, an act was paſſed, ſaid to have been framed by him, which was productive of the moſt pernicious conſequences to Great Britain; "An Act for laying a *ſtamp duty* in the Britiſh Colonies of North America," which received the royal aſſent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had alſo been made, under pretence of preventing ſmuggling in America; but which in effect ſo cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mother country. As ſoon as it was known in North America that the *ſtamp-act* was paſſed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own repreſentatives in their provincial aſſemblies, they loudly aſſerted, that the Britiſh parliament, in which they were not repreſented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the ſame doctrine had been maintained in the Britiſh parliament, when the ſtamp-act was under conſideration: on which occaſion

caſion it was ſaid, that it was the birth-right of the inhabitants of the colonies, even as the deſcendants of Engliſhmen, not to be taxed by any but their own repreſentatives; that, ſo far from being actually repreſented in the parliament of Great Britain, they were not even virtually repreſented there, as the meaneſt inhabitants of Great Britain are, in conſequence of their intimate connection with thoſe who are actually repreſented; and that therefore the attempt to tax the colonies in the Britiſh parliament was oppreſſive and unconſtitutional. On the other hand it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reaſon and juſtice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother-country. 'Theſe children of our own planting,' ſaid Mr. George Grenville, ſpeaking of the Americans, 'nouriſhed by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of ſtrength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence, which we lie under?'

When the ſtamp-act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. It was publicly burnt in ſeveral places, together with the effigies of thoſe who were ſuppoſed to be the moſt active in bringing it about. It was not the common people only, but perſons of all ranks, who engaged in oppoſition to this act: and, in particular, the provincial aſſemblies took a very active part againſt it. The aſſembly of Virginia reſolved, 'That the general aſſembly of that colony, together with his majeſty, or his ſubſtitute, have, in their repreſentative capacity, the only excluſive right and power to lay taxes and impoſitions upon the inhabitants of that colony; and that every attempt to inveſt ſuch a power in any perſon or perſons whatſoever, other than the general aſſembly aforeſaid, is illegal, unconſtitutional, and unjuſt, and has a manifeſt tendency to deſtroy Britiſh, as well as American freedom.' Similar reſolves were alſo made in other colonies.

The general diſcontent which prevailed in America being known in England, ſeveral maſters of ſhips refuſed to take any ſtamps on board for the colonies; and it ſoon appeared, that their precaution was well founded: for ſuch as ventured to take them, had abundant reaſon to repent it, on their arrival at their deſtined ports; where, to ſave their veſſels from fire, they were forced to deliver their cargoes of ſtamped paper into the hands of the enraged multitude, to be treated in the ſame ignominious manner in which the act had been treated; and other veſſels were obliged to take ſhelter under ſuch of the king's ſhips as happened to be at hand to protect them. Many perſons who came from England with commiſſions to act as diſtributors of the ſtamps, were alſo compelled publicly to renounce having any concern in them. Several other acts of violence were likewiſe committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the ſtamp-act; and aſſociations were alſo formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themſelves not to import or purchaſe any Britiſh manufactures, till that act ſhould be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies alſo eſtabliſhed committees from every colony to correſpond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from theſe committees to meet IN CONGRESS at New York. They aſſembled together in that city, in October 1765, and this was the firſt congreſs held on the American continent.

Theſe commotions in America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury; and ſome of his lordſhip's

lordſhip's friends ſucceeded to the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was paſſed for repealing the American ſtamp-act. This was countenanced and ſupported by the new miniſtry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet ſpoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He ſaid of the late miniſtry, that 'every capital meaſure they had taken was entirely wrong.' He contended, that the parliament of Great Britain had no right to tax the colonies. 'For the commons of America, repreſented in their ſeveral aſſemblies, have ever been in poſſeſſion of the exerciſe of their conſtitutional right, of giving and granting their own money. They would have been ſlaves if they had not enjoyed it. At the ſame time, this kingdom, as the ſupreme governing and legiſlative power, has always bound the colonies by her laws, by her regulations, and reſtrictions in trade, in navigation, in manufactures—in every thing except that of taking their money out of their pockets without their conſent.' He alſo aſſerted, that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a year.

At the time that the ſtamp-act was repealed, an act was alſo paſſed for ſecuring the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain. But this does not appear then to have given much umbrage to the coloniſts, regarding it as a *brutum fulmen*, or a pope's bull; and the repeal of the ſtamp-act occaſioned great rejoicings both in America and Great Britain. It would have been happy for the mother-country, if no new laws and regulations had afterwards taken place, which were calculated again to embroil Great Britain and the colonies. But ſome attempts of this kind, which were vehemently oppoſed by the colonies, at length brought on a civil war of the moſt ruinous and fatal nature.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in adminiſtration but a ſhort time; though during their continuance in power ſeveral public meaſures were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens of the people, and to the ſecurity of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the Exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy-ſeal; but that eminent ſtateſman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the houſe of commons, greatly leſſened his weight and influence. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and ſundry changes followed. Mr. Charles Townſhend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but, on his death, the place of chancellor of the Exchequer was ſupplied by lord North, who afterwards became firſt lord of the treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendancy in the adminiſtration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time reſided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The limits of our work will not permit us to enter into all the particulars reſpecting the proſecution of this gentleman, and the ſubſequent tranſactions concerning him: for theſe we muſt refer to our quarto edition. It is well known, that verdicts were found againſt him on account of the North Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Eſſay on Woman." That he ſuffered a long impriſonment of two years, and paid two fines of 500l. each. That he diſplayed great abilities during his conteſts with the miniſtry, and was choſen member for the county of

Middleſex, on the 28th of March, 1768. He was alſo again expelled, for being the author of ſome prefatory remarks on a letter which he publiſhed, written by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate to the chairman of the quarter-ſeſſions at Lambeth, in which the ſecretary had recommended to the magiſtrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's fields, their calling in the aſſiſtance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there ſhould be occaſion. In the vote for his expulſion, his former offences, for which he was now ſuffering impriſonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be iſſued for the election of a member for the county of Middleſex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was proſecuted, only increaſed his popularity, which was alſo much augmented by the ſpirit and firmneſs which on every occaſion he diſplayed. Before his expulſion, he had been choſen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford, member for the county of Middleſex, without oppoſition. The return having been made to the houſe, it was reſolved, that Mr. Wilkes having been expelled that ſeſſion, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was declared void, and a new writ iſſued for another. He was once more unanimouſly re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the houſe of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel, in order to recommend himſelf to the court, vacated the ſeat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. Though the whole weight of court intereſt was thrown into the ſcale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared againſt him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrel only 296. Notwithſtanding this, two days after the election, it was reſolved in the houſe of commons, that Mr. Luttrel ought to have been returned a knight of the ſhire for the county of Middleſex; and the deputy-clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by eraſing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of colonel Luttrel in its place. The latter accordingly took his ſeat in parliament; but this was thought ſo groſs a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general diſcontent, and loud complaints were made againſt it in every part of the kingdom.

Petitions, couched in very ſtrong terms, were preſented to the throne, from different places, complaining of this and other national grievances. The county of Middleſex, as the moſt immediately affected, took the lead on this occaſion, and preſented a petition, in which they complained, 'that their legal and free choice of a repreſentative had been repeatedly rejected, and the right of election finally taken from them, by the unprecedented ſeating of a candidate who was never choſen by the county.' They alſo ſaid, that 'inſtead of the ancient and legal civil police, the military were introduced at every opportunity, unneceſſarily and unlawfully; that the civil magiſtracy was rendered contemptible, by the appointment of improper and incapable perſons; and that the civil magiſtrates, being tampered with by adminiſtration, neglected and refuſed to diſcharge their duty.' Theſe petitioners likewiſe addreſſed his majeſty in the following terms: 'With great grief and ſorrow, we have long beheld the endeavours of certain evil minded perſons, who attempted to infuſe into your royal mind notions and opinions of the moſt dangerous and pernicious tendency, and who promote and counſel ſuch meaſures as cannot fail to deſtroy

deſtroy that harmony and confidence, which ſhould ever ſubſiſt between a juſt and virtuous prince, and a free and loyal people.' Various other particulars were complained of in this petition; and petitions of a ſimilar nature were preſented from the livery of London, the electors of Weſtminſter, from ſeveral other cities and boroughs, and about ſeventeen counties. Theſe petitions were ſaid to be ſigned by upwards of 60,000 electors. Some of the petitions were, indeed, principally confined to the violated right of elections, but others were more diffuſe; and Yorkſhire, Weſtminſter, and ſome others, prayed in expreſs terms for a diſſolution of parliament, under the idea of being venal and corrupt.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired, in the year 1771, he was choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Middleſex; and was afterwards again choſen member for the county of Middleſex in the ſubſequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his ſeat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord mayor of the city of London; and hath ſince been elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's adminiſtration, at Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions of the houſe of commons reſpecting his election for the county of Middleſex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it ſhould be remembered, that in conſequence of his manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch warrants, and to the unlawful ſeizure of an Engliſhman's papers by ſtate meſſengers.

While theſe affairs were tranſacting in England, and the objects of general attention, other occurrences happened relative to America, which were of the moſt ſerious nature, and which produced conſequences highly injurious and ruinous to the intereſts of Great Britain.

After the repeal of the ſtamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the Britiſh parliament, though, beſides the experience of the ill ſucceſs of the ſtamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the diſpoſition of the coloniſts, ſaid in the houſe of commons, in 1767, 'It is a fact which this houſe ought to be apprized of in all its extent, that the people of America, univerſally, unitedly, and unalterably, are reſolved not to ſubmit to any internal tax impoſed upon them by any legiſlature, in which they have not a ſhare by repreſentatives of their own election.' He added, 'this claim muſt not be underſtood as though it were only the pretences of party-leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the viſions of ſpeculative enthuſiaſts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which muſt ſubſide; as though it were only temporary or partial—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of buſineſs in the country.' The event verified the juſtice of theſe obſervations; yet the ſame year, an act was paſſed laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies for the purpoſe of raiſing a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal theſe duties, excepting that on tea; but as it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impoſe taxes in America, which was the ſubject of diſpute, the repealing the other duties anſwered no purpoſe, while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a freſh ſubject of conteſt between the mother-country

and the colonies. Other laws had alſo been paſſed in England, particularly one relative to quartering troops in the colonies, and another for ſuſpending the legiſlative powers of the aſſembly of New York, which gave great umbrage in America. Another ſcheme which was alſo adopted, of appointing the governors and judges in the colonies to be paid by the crown, and not by the proviſional aſſemblies, as heretofore, occaſioned likewiſe much diſcontent in America, as it was ſuppoſed, that this new regulation would render the governors and judges wholly dependent on the crown, and independent of the people.

In order to induce the Eaſt India company to become inſtrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was paſſed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatſoever. Several ſhips were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who alſo appointed agents there for the diſpoſal of that commodity. This was conſidered by the Americans, as a ſcheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was eaſily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the cuſtody of the conſignees, no aſſociations, nor other meaſures, would be ſufficient to prevent its ſale and conſumption: and it was not to be ſuppoſed, that when taxation was eſtabliſhed in one inſtance, it would reſtrain itſelf in others. Theſe ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was reſolved by the coloniſts to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongſt them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ſhips laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boſton in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the diſguiſe of Mohawk Indians, boarded theſe ſhips, and in a few hours diſcharged their whole cargoes of tea into the ſea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some ſmaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a ſimilar fate at Boſton, and a few other places; but in general, the commiſſioners for the ſale of that commodity were obliged to relinquiſh their employments, and the maſters of the tea-veſſels, from an apprehenſion of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the perſons in the ſervice of government there were obliged to conſent to its being locked up from uſe. And in South Carolina ſome was thrown into the river, as at Boſton, and the reſt put into damp warehouſes, where it periſhed.

Theſe proceedings in America excited ſo much indignation in the government of England, that on the 31ſt of March, 1774, an act was paſſed for removing the cuſtom-houſe officers from the town of Boſton, and ſhutting up the port. Another act was ſoon after paſſed 'for better regulating the government in the province of Maſſachuſett's Bay.' The deſign of this act was to alter the conſtitution of that province as it ſtood upon the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to veſt the nomination of the counſellors, judges, and magiſtrates of all kinds, including ſheriffs, in the crown, and in ſome caſes in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleaſure of the crown. Another act was alſo paſſed, which was conſidered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconſtitutional, empowering the governor of Maſſachuſett's Bay to ſend perſons accuſed of crimes there to be tried in England for ſuch offences. Some time after, an act was likewiſe paſſed 'for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec,' which excited a great alarm both in England and America.

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By this act, a legiſlative council was to be eſtabliſhed for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation, which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleaſure; and his majeſty's Canadian Roman Catholic ſubjects were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were alſo eſtabliſhed in civil caſes, and the Engliſh laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the Popiſh clergy were inveſted with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No aſſembly of the people, as in other Britiſh colonies, was appointed, it being ſaid in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the king was to erect ſuch courts of criminal, civil, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, as he ſhould think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewiſe extended by the act, thouſands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was ſaid, a government little better than deſpotic was eſtabliſhed throughout an extenſive country. As to the clauſes reſpecting the Popiſh clergy in Canada, it was admitted, that it would have been unjuſt to have perſecuted them, or to have deprived them of the exerciſe of their religion; but it was maintained, that it could not be neceſſary that Popery ſhould have ſuch a legal eſtabliſhment given it by a Britiſh government, as that their prieſts ſhould have the ſame right to claim their eccleſiaſtical revenues, as the clergy of the eſtabliſhed church in England. It was alſo thought extremely injurious to the Britiſh ſettlers in Canada, that, when that province had been conquered by Britiſh arms, they ſhould be compelled to ſubmit to French laws, and be deprived of thoſe privileges which they would have enjoyed in other parts of his majeſty's dominions.

The meaſures of government reſpecting America had ſo univerſally exaſperated the coloniſts, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, wherein they avowed their intentions of oppoſing, in the moſt vigorous manner, the meaſures of adminiſtration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the ſubſcribers bound themſelves in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in the preſence of God, to ſuſpend all commercial intercourſe with Great Britain, from the laſt day of the month of Auguſt, 1774, until the Boſton-port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Maſſachuſet's Bay fully reſtored to its chartered rights. Other tranſactions ſucceeded; and the flame continued to increaſe and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which ſtretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congreſs, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who repreſented the ſeveral Engliſh colonies of New Hampſhire (2 delegates), Maſſachuſet's Bay (4), Rhode Iſland and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jerſey (4), Penſylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy and ſent deputies to the Congreſs. They entered into an aſſociation, in which they bound themſelves and their conſtituents, not to import into Britiſh America, from Great Britain, or Ireland, any goods, wares, or merchandiſe whatſoever, from the 1ſt day of December following; nor to import any Eaſt India tea from any part of the world; nor to export any merchandiſe or commodity whatſoever to Great Britain, Ireland, or the Weſt Indies, from the 10th of September, 1775, unleſs the act for ſtopping the port and blocking up the harbour of Boſton, that for altering the charter and government of the

province of Maſſachuſet's Bay, the Quebec act, the acts by which duties were impoſed on any commodities imported into America, and ſome other acts, which they enumerated, were repealed. They avowed their allegiance to his majeſty, and their affection and regard for their fellow-ſubjects in Great Britain, but aſſerted the neceſſity of their adopting ſuch meaſures as were calculated to obtain a redreſs of thoſe grievances which they laboured under; and which, they ſaid, "threatened deſtruction to the lives, liberty, and property of the inhabitants of the colonies."

They alſo drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their ſeveral grievances, and ſolicited his majeſty to grant them peace, liberty, and ſafety. They likewiſe publiſhed an addreſs to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congreſs broke up on the 26th of October, having reſolved, that another congreſs ſhould be held in the ſame place, on the 10th of May following, unleſs the grievances of which they complained ſhould be redreſſed before that time: and they recommended to all the colonies to chooſe deputies as ſoon as poſſible, for that purpoſe.

Shortly after theſe events, ſome meaſures were propoſed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a ſtop to the commotions which unhappily ſubſiſted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm ſtate of health, appeared in the houſe of lords, and expreſſed in the ſtrongeſt terms his diſapprobation of the whole ſyſtem of American meaſures. He alſo made a motion, for immediately recalling the troops from Boſton. He repreſented this as a meaſure which ſhould be inſtantly adopted; urging, that an hour then loſt, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged that the preſent ſituation of the troops rendered them and the Americans continually liable to events, which would cut off the poſſibility of a reconciliation; but that this conciliatory meaſure would be well timed; and as a mark of affection and good-will on our ſide, would remove all jealouſy and apprehenſion on the other, and inſtantaneouſly produce the happieſt effects to both. His lordſhip's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 againſt 18; as was alſo a bill which he brought in ſoon after for ſettling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods propoſed in the houſe of commons for promoting an accommodation, met alſo with a ſimilar fate. The number of his majeſty's troops were ordered to be augmented; and an act was paſſed for reſtraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the houſe of commons, by lord North, firſt lord of the treaſury, for ſuſpending the exerciſe of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the Britiſh parliament, in ſuch of the colonies as ſhould, in their general aſſemblies, raiſe ſuch contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to ſome of the provincial aſſemblies: but it was rejected by them as deluſive and unſatisfactory, and only calculated to diſunite them. The petition from the congreſs to the king was ordered by his majeſty to be laid before the parliament: whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, ſolicited to be heard at the bar of the houſe of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in ſupport of that petition: but their application was rejected; it being ſaid, that the American congreſs was no legal aſſembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

In the mean time, the inhabitants of the American colonies began to prepare for all events; and accordingly they trained and exerciſed their mili-

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tia with great induſtry; and when advice was received of a proclamation which was iſſued in England to prevent the exportation of arms and ammunition to America, meaſures were immediately adopted to remedy the defect. And to render themſelves as independent as poſſible of foreigners, for the ſupply of thoſe articles, mills were erected, and manufactories formed, both in Philadelphia and Virginia, for the making of gunpowder; and encouragement was given in all the colonies, for the fabrication of arms of every kind.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the firſt blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occaſioned by general Gage ſending a body of troops to deſtroy ſome military ſtores that were at Concord. They ſucceeded in their deſign, but were extremely haraſſed and forced to a quick retreat, 65 of them were killed 170 wounded, and about 20 made priſoners. The Americans were compured not to have loſt more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia inveſted the town of Boſton, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmoſt diſpatch; and a ſtop was almoſt every where put to the exportation of proviſions. The continental congreſs met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775 as propoſed, and ſoon adopted ſuch meaſures as confirmed the people in their reſolutions to oppoſe the Britiſh government to the utmoſt. Among their firſt acts, were reſolutions for the raiſing of an army, and the eſtabliſhment of a large paper currency for its payment. They aſſumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were ſecurities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They alſo ſtrictly prohibited the ſupplying of the Britiſh fiſheries with any kind of proviſions; and to render this order the more effectual, ſtopt all exportation to thoſe colonies, iſlands, and places, which ſtill retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. Theſe fortreſſes were taken without the loſs of a man on either ſide: and the provincials found in the forts a conſiderable number of pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and ſundry kinds of military ſtores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boſton from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements. But the continental congreſs were ſo little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Maſſachuſet's Bay was diſſolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the eſtabliſhment of a new government, by electing a governor, aſſiſtants, and houſe of aſſembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us here, to relate as in the quarto edition, all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention ſome of the moſt important tranſactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunkers hill, near Boſton, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loſs of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. But after this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, oppoſite to it, on their ſide of Charlestown neck; ſo that the troops were as cloſely inveſted in that peninſula as they had been in Boſton. About this time the congreſs appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired conſiderable experience in the com-

mand of different bodies of provincials during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They alſo publiſhed a declaration, in which they ſtyled themſelves "The Repreſentatives of the United Colonies of North America," and aſſigned their reaſons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated ſtrain, and contained the following paſſage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired ſolely by the honeſt induſtry of our forefathers and ourſelves; againſt violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We ſhall lay them down when hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on the part of the aggreſſors, and all danger of their being renewed ſhall be removed, and not before." A ſecond petition to the king was voted by the congreſs, in which they earneſtly ſolicited his majeſty to adopt ſome method of putting a ſtop to the unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was preſented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennſylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the American department; but Mr. Penn was ſoon after informed, that no anſwer would be given to it. The refuſal of the king to give anſwer to this petition, from near three millions of people by their repreſentatives, contributed exceedingly towards farther exaſperating the minds of the Americans. It was a raſh and unhappy determination of the cabinet-council, and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if not highly criminal. An addreſs now alſo was publiſhed by the congreſs to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory meaſures were adopted, hoſtilities ſtill continued; and an expedition was ſet on foot by the Americans againſt Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commiſſion given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada: by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the ſubjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital puniſhments againſt all thoſe whom he ſhould deem rebels and oppoſers of the laws. The American expedition againſt Canada, was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of conſiderable military ſkill, on whom the congreſs conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31ſt of December, Montgomery attempted to gain poſſeſſion of Quebec by ſtorm, but was killed in the firſt fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was alſo dangerouſly wounded, about 60 of their men were killed and wounded, and 300 taken priſoners. The beſiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the ſiege was for ſome months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving conſiderable reinforcements and ſupplies of proviſions from England, May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montreal, Chamblee, and St. John's were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During theſe tranſactions, the royal army at Boſton was reduced to great diſtreſs for want of proviſions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of ſeven thouſand men, was obliged to quit Boſton, and embarked for Halifax, leaving a conſiderable quantity of artillery and ſome ſtores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Waſhington immediately took poſſeſſion of it. On the 4th of

July

July following, the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "Free and Independent States;" that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally diſſolved; and alſo that, as free and independent ſtates, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent ſtates may of right do. They likewiſe publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "The United States of America," and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themſelves to aſſiſt each other againſt all violence that might threaten all, or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks that might be levelled againſt all, or any one of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatſoever. Each of the colonies reſerved to themſelves alone the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation.

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore ſir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina. But this place was ſo ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the Britiſh commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ſhips having ſuſtained conſiderable loſs, and a twenty-eight gun ſhip which run a ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and ſeamen. However, a much more important and ſucceſsful attack againſt the Americans was ſoon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Heſſians, and a conſiderable number of Highlanders, ſo that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother Vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and the admiral were inveſted with a power, under the title of "Commiſſioners for granting Peace to the Colonies," of granting pardons to thoſe who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York ſeems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the beſt manner they were able. On Long Iſland, near New York, the Americans had alſo a large body of troops encamped, and ſeveral works thrown up. General Howe firſt landed on Staten Iſland, where he met with no oppoſition; but early in the morning of the 22d of Auguſt, a deſcent was made by the Britiſh troops upon Long Iſland, and towards noon about fifteen thouſand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their ſuperior ſkill and diſcipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation; and the American paſſes were far from being properly ſecured. Some actions and ſkirmiſhes happened between them during ſeveral ſucceſſive days; in which the Britiſh troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans ſuffered exceedingly. Finding themſelves ſo much overpowered, they at length reſolved to quit the iſland, and general Waſhington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he diſplayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were

withdrawn from the camp and their different works, and with their baggage, ſtores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-ſide, embarked, and paſſed over a long ferry to New York, with ſuch extraordinary ſilence and order, that the Britiſh army did not perceive the leaſt motion, and were ſurpriſed in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and ſeeing the laſt of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been ſo ſurrounded by the Britiſh troops, and the latter had diſplayed ſuch ſuperior military ſkill, it was a ſubject of wonder that the greateſt part of the American army ſhould be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions previous to this, the loſs of the Americans had been very conſiderable. Upwards of a thouſand of them were taken priſoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number killed and wounded was computed to be ſtill greater; they loſt alſo five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in their different redoubts and forts on the iſland; whilſt the whole loſs of the Britiſh troops, if faithfully publiſhed, did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now ſoon abandoned, and the royal army obtained ſome other conſiderable advantages over the Americans: at the White Plains, taking fort Waſhington, with a garriſon of 2500 men, and fort Lee with a great quantity of ſtores, which loſſes obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerſies to the river Delaware, a diſtance of ninety miles. Alſo on the 8th of December, general Clinton and ſir Peter Parker obtained poſſeſſion of Rhode-iſland; and the Britiſh troops covered the Jerſies. This was the criſis of American danger. All their forts taken, and the time of the greateſt part of their army to ſerve, was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a deſtitute ſtate, with a well clothed and diſciplined army purſuing. Had general Howe puſhed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Waſhington, it hath been maintained there would have been an end of the conteſt; but Providence directed otherwiſe; and the general's orders from home are ſaid to have prevented him. This delay gave way for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradeſman, and labourer, to join general Waſhington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidſt ſnow, ſtorms, and ice, with a ſmall detachment, croſſed the Delaware, and ſurpriſed a brigade of the Heſſian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them priſoners, with whom he repaſſed the river; having alſo taken three ſtandards, ſix pieces of braſs cannon, and near one thouſand ſtand of arms. Immediately after this ſurpriſe of the Heſſians, and depoſiting them in ſafety, Waſhington recroſſed the river to reſume his former poſt at Trenton. The Britiſh troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning to execute it; but the Americans, by a happy ſtroke of generalſhip, defeated the plan. Waſhington, to diſguiſe his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to reſt, and to conceal what was acting behind them. Then he moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried the Britiſh poſt at that place, and ſet off with near 300 priſoners on his return to the Delaware, juſt as the Britiſh troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, ſuppoſing him in his former poſition. By theſe two events, accompliſhed with but a ſmall force, the Americans deranged all the plans of the Britiſh general; made him draw his troops to a cloſer compaſs, to protect his magazines at Brunſwick;

wick; and by the efforts of their general, they closed the campaign with advantage, which but a few days before had threatned the country with destruction. The Americans had also fitted out a great number of privateers, which took many prizes: and on the other hand, not a few of the American vessels fell into the hands of the English, but they were generally much less valuable.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms October 17, 1777; they were, however, permitted to march out of their camp with all the honours of war, and were to be allowed to return to Europe, upon condition of their not serving again during the present war. In one of the actions previous to this convention, brigadier-general Frazer, a very gallant officer, was killed; and at the time of their surrender, the British army was exceedingly reduced in numbers; and their stock of provisions was not more than sufficient for three days subsistence: whilst, on the other hand, the American army had been rendered very numerous in consequence of being joined by large bodies of the militia, who were exasperated at some late cruelties committed by the Indians in the service of Great Britain. The convention was not afterwards adhered to on the part of the Americans; but it was alleged in their behalf, that their conduct was justified by some circumstances in the behaviour of general Burgoyne, and that he had not himself, in every respect, conformed to the articles of it.

About the same time, sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River; they made themselves masters of several forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and some others, the British troops had wantonly set fire to houses and towns, particularly Esopus, and carried on the war in a manner not usual among civilized nations. These devastations greatly increased the aversion of the Americans to the British government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was so ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved so ill, that their loss did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court seems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great Britain. Some French

officers alſo entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the eſſential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George Johnſtone, eſqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners from his majeſty, to ſettle the diſputes between the mother country and the colonies. They were inveſted with certain powers for this purpoſe by act of parliament. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the conteſt, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with diſdain. The congreſs refuſed to enter into any treaty with the Britiſh commiſſioners, if the independency of the United States of America was not previouſly acknowledged, or the Britiſh fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of theſe requiſitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animoſity. At the cloſe of the year, Georgia was invaded by the king's troops, the town of Savannah taken, and the whole province at length reduced.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occaſioned hoſtilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either ſide. On the 17th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately iſſued by the French court for making repriſals on the ſhips of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line, and the French 32, beſides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of the Engliſh 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the Engliſh fleet, becauſe a deciſive victory had not been obtained over the French; at laſt the blame was thrown upon ſir Hugh Palliſer, vice-admiral of the blue, who was charged in a news paper with miſconduct, and diſobedience of orders. Though no regular accuſation was brought againſt him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated againſt him. This the admiral declined, which gave riſe to ſome altercation between them; and ſir Hugh Palliſer afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he was himſelf a member) articles of accuſation againſt admiral Keppel, though for many months after the action, he had continued to act under him, and profeſſed the greateſt reſpect to him. A mode of conduct ſo extraordinary, was very generally and ſeverely cenſured, but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. Soon after, a memorial was preſented to the king by the duke of Bolton, ſigned by twelve admirals, among whom was lord Hawke, remonſtrating againſt the injuſtice of holding a court-martial on admiral Keppel,

Keppel, upon the accuſation of an inferior officer, "after forty years of meritorious ſervice and a variety of actions in which he had exerted eminent courage and conduct, by which the honour and power of this nation, and the glory of the Britiſh flag, had been maintained and increaſed in various parts of the world." When the court martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the moſt honourable manner; and ſir Hugh Palliſer's charge againſt him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." Some of the moſt diſtinguiſhed officers in the ſervice, and who had been in the action, gave the moſt deciſive evidence in the admiral's favour, and expreſſed their ſenſe of his great merit in the ſtrongeſt terms: and, after his acquittal, both houſes of parliament alſo voted their thanks to him for his ſervices to the nation. But ſir Hugh Palliſer being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly compoſed from ſome of the captains of his own diviſion, he likewiſe was acquitted; his diſobedience to the admiral's orders was conſidered as being occaſioned by the diſabled ſtate of his ſhip; a ſlight cenſure only was paſſed on him for not making the ſtate of his ſhip known to the admiral; and his conduct in other reſpects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the Eaſt Indies alſo an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh ſhips of war under the command of ſir Edward Vernon, and ſome French ſhips under the command of Monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of Auguſt, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the courſe of the ſame year, the iſland of St. Lucia, in the Weſt Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themſelves maſter of Dominica, and the following year they obtained poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Eſtaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and conſiderable body of French troops, to the aſſiſtance of the Americans. After dallying a month, the French and Americans made an united attack upon the Britiſh troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevoſt. But the latter defended themſelves ſo well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loſs, and D'Eſtaing ſoon after totally abandoned the coaſt of America. And at the cloſe of the year 1779, ſeveral French ſhips of war, and merchant-ſhips, were taken in the Weſt Indies, by a fleet under the command of ſir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war againſt England; one of the firſt enterpriſes in which the Spaniards engaged was the ſiege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garriſon with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was alſo added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets ſeemed for a time to ride almoſt triumphant in the Britiſh Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconſiderable apprehenſions of an invaſion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and after parading for ſome time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780, ſir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured ſeven Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading veſſels under their convoy; and in a few days after, the ſame admiral engaged near Cape St. Vincent, a Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of eleven ſhips of the line, and two frigates,

frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largeſt Spaniſh ſhips were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on ſhore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the Engliſh. A Spaniſh 70 gun ſhip, with 600 men, was alſo blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewiſe happened in the Weſt Indies, between the Engliſh fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previouſly thrown ſupplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of theſe actions were deciſive, nor was any ſhip taken on either ſide. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ſhips from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of Auguſt, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips, bound for the Weſt Indies, which was one of the moſt complete naval captures ever made, and a very ſevere ſtroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 178 , ſir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of Charles-town, South Carolina; and on the 16th of Auguſt, earl Cornwallis obtained a very ſignal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thouſand American priſoners were taken, beſides ſeven pieces of braſs cannon, a number of colours, and their ammunition-waggons. But on the 10th of July, Monſ. Ternay, with a fleet conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, beſides frigates, and a large body of French troops commanded by the count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Iſland, and landed ſix thouſand men there. The American inhabitants congratulated the French general upon his arrival; and he aſſured them that the king his maſter, had ſent him to the aſſiſtance of his good and faithful allies, the United States of America; and that the French troops were to act under the orders of general Waſhington, and would live with the Americans as their brethren.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the congreſs, made his eſcape to New York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice. He had ſo behaved in his government in Philadelphia, or his conduct was ſo repreſented, as to incur the diſpleaſure and odium of the citizens, and of the province in general. According to the judgment of a court-martial, he was highly reprehenſible, and they ordered that he ſhould be reprimanded. He was afterwards taken into ſervice in the principal army, with conſiderable rank and truſt, though according to his own juſtification memorial, all his opinions with reſpect to the juſtice and policy of the war had been totally changed long before; and to account for his having ſo long acted directly contrary to his avowed ſentiments, he openly acknowledged, that he had only retained his arms and command for ſuch an opportunity as he thought fitting for ſurrendering them. Accordingly, when the ſtrong and important poſt of Weſt Point with its dependencies, and a wing or conſiderable diviſion of the army were entruſted to him, a negociation was diſcovered between him and general Clinton for the purpoſe of delivering up to him his troops and the poſt which he commanded. This would have enabled Clinton completely to ſurpriſe the other poſts and batteries, and nothing leſs than ſlaughter, diſperſion, and final ruin could have been the reſult with reſpect to the Americans. The deſtruction of their whole diſciplined force, and of moſt of their beſt officers, with a loſs of artillery, magazines and ſtores, muſt have been immediately fatal. Major André, Adjutant-general of the Britiſh army, was employed in this clandeſtine negociation, and to complete the meaſures concerted with Arnold. After an interview

view with Arnold, and ſtaying in his tent a whole night and day, on his return to New York he was taken diſguiſed within the American lines, and in his boot were found, in Arnold's hand-writing, exact returns of the ſtate of the forces, ordnance, and defences at Weſt Point and its dependencies—the artillery orders—critical remarks on the works, eſtimates of the number of men on duty to man them, and a copy of very intereſting matters which had been laid before a council of war by the commander in chief. Theſe papers that were found upon him, ſubjected him to inſtant execution, in the ſummary way uſually practiſed with ſpies: but general Waſhington appointed a board of fourteen general officers to examine into his caſe, who reported, that he ought to be conſidered as a ſpy in paſſing their works under a feigned name and in a diſguiſed habit, and that agreeable to the law and uſage of nations he ought to ſuffer death. Which he did at Tappan, in the province of New York; though his fate was much regretted by all perſons, on account of his many amiable qualities, and the Americans wiſhed to have exchanged him for general Arnold.

The great expences of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occaſioned much diſcontent in the nation, and ſeemed to convince perſons of all ranks of the neceſſity of public œconomy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the cloſe of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were preſent, who agreed to preſent petitions to the houſe of commons, in which they earneſtly requeſted, "that before any new burthens were laid upon "this country, effectual meaſures might be taken by that houſe to "inquire into, and correct the groſs abuſes in the expenditure of public "money; to reduce all exorbitant emoluments; to reſcind and aboliſh "all ſinecure places and unmerited penſions; and to appropriate the "produce to the neceſſities of the ſtate, in ſuch manner as to the wiſ-"dom of parliament ſhould ſeem meet." The firſt petition of this kind was agreed to in the county of York, in a meeting conſiſting of perſons of the largeſt property in the county; and the example was followed by the counties of Cheſter, Hertford, Suſſex, Surry, Eſſex, Somerſet, Wilts, Glouceſter, Huntingdon, Dorſet, Cumberland, Norfolk, Devon, Berks, Nottingham, Bucks, Cambridge, Bedford, Suffolk, Northumberland, Hereford, and Denbigh. The cities of London and Weſtminſter, and ſeveral other towns and corporations, concurred in ſimilar petitions. In ſome counties, committees were alſo appointed to carry on the neceſſary correſpondence with other counties, for affectually promoting the objects of the petitions, and to prepare a plan of an aſſociation, on legal and conſtitutional grounds, to ſupport a reform of the public expenditure, and ſuch other meaſures as might conduce to reſtore the freedom of parliament. Great expectations were at firſt formed of the effects which theſe petitions would produce; and they were vigorouſly ſuppo ted by the minority in parliament. The moſt moderate men, and thoſe who were the leaſt inimical to government, could not doubt of the propriety and utility of public œconomy, at a period of great national expence and danger: and even the miniſtry ſeemed to apprehend, that the complaints of the people would render their ſituation inſecure. Some apparent attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances ſtated in the petitions, but nothing important was effected; the miniſtry ſoon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diverſity of ſentiment occaſioned ſome diſunion among the popular leaders; the ſpirit

which

which had appeared among the people by degrees ſubſided; and various cauſes at length conſpired to bring the greateſt part of the nation to a patient acquieſcence in the meaſures of adminiſtration.

The middle of the year 1780 was diſtinguiſhed by one of the moſt diſgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; eſpecially if it be conſidered as happening in an age, in which the principles of toleration were well underſtood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately paſſed "for relieving his majeſty's "ſubjects, profeſſing the Romiſh religion, from certain penalties and "diſabilities impoſed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign "of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of ſenſe, and of liberal ſentiments, by whom the laws againſt Papiſts were juſtly deemed too ſevere. The act at firſt ſeemed to give little offence to perſons of any claſs in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Reſolutions were formed to oppoſe any law for granting indulgences to Papiſts in Scotland; and a Romiſh chapel was burned, and the houſes of ſeveral Papiſts demoliſhed, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England: a number of perſons aſſembled themſelves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the Papiſts, and they aſſumed the title of the Proteſtant Aſſociation. They were chiefly Methodiſts in the lower ranks of life, who took the lead: many of them well-intentioned perſons, and having a juſt diſlike to popery; but not ſufficiently enlightened to conſider, that a ſpirit of perſecution was one of the worſt characteriſtics of that ſyſtem of ſuperſtition, and that this was at leaſt as odious in Proteſtants as in Papiſts. They continued to hold frequent meetings; lord George Gordon, a young man, diſcontented at not being promoted from a lieutenant, to a captain in the navy, became their preſident, and they increaſed in numbers. At a time when the nation was ſurrounded with real dangers, the heads of theſe weak men were filled with nothing but the fear of popery; and they even ſeemed to fancy that they were contending for religious liberty, when they were labouring to excite the legiſlature to prevent ſome of their fellow-ſubjects from worſhipping God according to the dictates of their conſciences. The Proteſtant Aſſociation at length agreed to a petition, which was ſaid to have been ſubſcribed by more than one hundred thouſand perſons, the utmoſt induſtry having been employed to procure names to it, let their characters, occupations, or ages, be what they would, and pens put into the fingers of children which were directed to ſign their names alſo. It was then reſolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended by great numbers of petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement was iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lord George Gordon.

Accordingly, at leaſt fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this view, on Friday the ſecond of June, in St. George's fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of the day ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the populace: and a mob aſſembled the ſame evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romiſh chapel in Warwick-ſtreet Golden-ſquare were entirely demoliſhed. A party of the guards were then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the farther progreſs of theſe violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed

mitted to Newgate, escorted by the military. On the Sunday following another mob assembled, and destroyed a Popish chapel in Rope-maker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school-house, and three dwelling-houses, in the same place, belonging to the Romish priests, with a valuable library of books, and a mass-house, in Virginia-street, Ratcliff-highway. They also destroyed all the household furniture of sir George Savile, one of the most respectable men in the kingdom, because he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papists. On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about the parliament-house, and behaved so tumultuously, that both houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refused to deliver them, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength; and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. Now, a committee of the Protestant Association circulated hand-bills, requesting all true Protestants to shew their attachment to their best interest, by a legal and peaceable department: but none of them stept forth, notwithstanding their boasted numbers, to extinguish the flames they had occasioned: violence, tumult, and devastation still continued. The Protestant Association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of mischief, and the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the houses of lord Mansfield, and sir John Fielding, and several other private houses, were destroyed the same evening. The following day, the King's Bench prison, the New Bridewell, in St. George's fields, some Popish chapels, several private houses of Papists, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others set on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During these extraordinary scenes, there was a shameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in most of the other magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their own houses, and of the royal palace. Some of the common people engaged in these riots with the more readiness, on account of the unpopularity of the ministry: nor could so much violence and disorder have happened under any administration, which had been generally respected. Even some persons in better circumstances, who totally disapproved of the bigotry of the Protestant association, were yet induced at first to oppose the rioters with less vigour, from entertaining ideas that these tumults might possibly inspire terror into the administration, and occasion a change of measures. The event, however, was directly the reverse; the fears of the ministry were only temporary; and the riots, and their consequences, greatly contributed, in fact, to strengthen the hands of government. The magistrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the insurgents: but at length, as all property began to be insecure, men of all classes began to see the necessity of a vigorous opposition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil

magiſtrates, and to uſe force for diſperſing the illegal and tumultuous aſſemblies of the people." The troops exerted themſelves with diligence in the ſuppreſſion of theſe alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony *, and the metropolis was at length reſtored to order and tranquillity. The manner in which theſe tumults were ſuppreſſed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magiſtrate, however neceſſary from the peculiar circumſtances of the caſe, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent: and that an act of indemnity ought to have been paſſed, not only with regard to inferior perſons who had acted in the ſuppreſſion of theſe riots, but alſo with reſpect to the miniſtry themſelves, for the part they had taken in this tranſaction, in order to prevent its being eſtabliſhed as a precedent.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland. The American war had occaſioned various diſputes between that republic and Great Britain. Complaints were made by the Dutch, that their ſhips were ſeized by the Engliſh cruizers, without any juſt cauſe, and when they were not laden with any contraband goods. On the other hand, loud remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the States-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatia; and that the enemies of Great Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch. Theſe diſputes continued to increaſe: and on the firſt of January, 1780, commodore Fielding brought to Spithead ſeveral ſhips laden with naval ſtores, which were under the convoy of a Dutch admiral. The States-general alleged, that the naval ſtores which had been ſeized were not contraband goods, according to the expreſs tenor and letter of the treaties between Great Britain and Holland, and that the conduct of the Engliſh commodore, which was approved by his ſovereign, was a direct inſult upon the Dutch flag, and a violation of the treaties ſubſiſting between the two nations. Previous to this tranſaction, the Britiſh miniſter had demanded of the States-general the ſuccours which were ſtipulated in the treaty of 1678, and others: and which were now claimed on account of the dangers with which Great Britain was threatened, and particularly the invaſion that ſhe was menaced with by her enemies. Repeated applications were made to the States-general on this ſubject, but they delayed giving any anſwer. Other cauſes of conteſt alſo aroſe between England and Holland; and a declaration of hoſtilities againſt Holland was publiſhed on the 20th of December, 1780. This meaſure ſeemed, at firſt, to be generally applauded by the Britiſh nation; but there were many who thought it a very raſh and impolitic ſtep, and that a war with Holland ought not to have been ſo much precipitated, at a time when Great Britain was already involved in a war with France and Spain, and in a ſtill more deſtructive conteſt with her American colonies.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour: and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere ſtroke in the loſs of the iſland of St.

* Lord George Gordon was himſelf committed to the Tower and tried for high treaſon, but acquitted.

Euſtatia,

Euſtatia, which was taken by the Engliſh on the 3d of February, 1781. When admiral Rodney, and general Vaughan, who arrived there with a large fleet, and a conſiderable body of troops, ſummoned the place to ſurrender, the inhabitants were in the utmoſt conſternation, not having the leaſt expectation of ſuch an attack. Not the leaſt reſiſtance was made: and all the private property, goods, merchandiſe, and ſpecie of the inhabitants, were ſeized, as well as the public military and naval ſtores. The capture of ſhipping was alſo very great; upwards of 200 veſſels being taken, beſides a 60 gun ſhip, and a frigate of 38 guns. The iſlands of St. Martin and Saba likewiſe ſurrendered, but the ſeizure of the private property at St. Euſtatia was thought a very rigorous and ſhameful meaſure; altogether unprecedented among civilized nations, and diſgraceful to the Britiſh name. The inhabitants of the iſland of St. Chriſtopher remonſtrated againſt it as a very dangerous precedent; it was obſerved, that the French nation had acted in a much more humane manner in their late captures; and the Britiſh Weſt India planters petitioned the king on the occaſion, repreſenting to him, they had always conceived it to be a maxim among nations, and eſtabliſhed in humanity and ſound policy, that war ſhould be carried on with the leaſt poſſible injury to private property, found in any countries or towns which might be invaded or conquered: that they were therefore alarmed at the indiſcriminate ſeizure of private property at St. Euſtatia, which would naturally lead the enemy to retaliate in ſimilar caſes; which muſt increaſe the calamities of war, by exciting to a deſperate reſiſtance, by exaſperating the enemy againſt the trading inhabitants of thoſe Britiſh iſlands which might hereafter be obliged to ſubmit to their arms, and by eſtabliſhing a predatory ſyſtem, deſtructive and ruinous in its conſequuences to individuals, and of no ſolid benefit to the ſeveral ſtates concerned.

On the 5th of Auguſt, the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. According to the Engliſh accounts, the Dutch ſquadron conſiſted of eight ſhips of the line, and the Engliſh only of ſeven: but the Dutch repreſent their force to be inferior to that of the Engliſh. On both ſides they fought with great gallantry, and by both of the contending ſquadrons the victory was claimed. All the ſhips were greatly ſhattered, and a Dutch 74 gun ſhip ſunk after the action. The Engliſh had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and the loſs of the Dutch is ſuppoſed to have been much greater.

The war continued to be proſecuted with various ſucceſs; the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, with little effectual reſiſtance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781, but it was a hard fought battle, and the loſs on both ſides conſiderable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the conſequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his ſick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before they could find ſhelter, and ſo left South Carolina entirely expoſed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed ſome ravages in Virginia, deſtroyed much ſhipping, and about 8000 hogſheads of tobacco; but

but none of theſe events at that time promiſed any ſpeedy termination of the war, they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans, and the French at Rhode Iſland to that quarter, where the next year the deciſive blow was ſtruck which firmly eſtabliſhed American Independence. Lord Cornwallis's ſituation at Wilmington was very diſagreeable, and his force reduced ſo low that he could not think of marching to Charles-Town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the ſcattered operations of active hoſtility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand cataſtrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops, but ſuch was their plundering and devaſtations on their route, and the order of the Americans, his ſituation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from ſending thoſe ſuccours to him which he otherwiſe would have done, by his fears for New York, againſt which he apprehended Waſhington meditated a formidable attack. This American general played a game of great addreſs; as many of their poſts and diſpatches had been intercepted, and the letters publiſhed with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expoſe the poverty, weakneſs, and diſunion of the Americans; Waſhington ſoon turned the tables on the Britiſh commanders, and derived public advantage from this ſource of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the ſouthern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unleſs by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He aſſerted it was abſolutely determined on, and would ſoon be executed. Theſe letters were intercepted (as was intended they ſhould) with others of the like kind from the French officers, and the project was ſucceſsful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amuſed and deceived, and kept from forming any ſuſpicion of the real deſigns of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Waſhington kept New York and its dependencies in a continual ſtate of alarm for about ſix weeks, and then ſuddenly marched acroſs the Jerſies and through Pennſylvania to the head of the Elk, at the bottom of the Cheſapeak, from which, the light troops were conveyed by ſhipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were alſo there embarked, and ſoon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count De Graſſe was expected every moment in the Cheſapeak, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Waſhington, now ſeriouſly attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without ſucceſs, for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the Britiſh fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Graſſe, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French maſters of the navigation of the Cheſapeak. Preſently the moſt effectual meaſures were adopted by general Waſhington for ſurrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the laſt of September it was cloſely inveſted in York Town, and at Glouceſter on the oppoſite ſide of the river, with a conſiderable body of troops on one ſide, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raiſed by the Britiſh, ſunk under the weight of the enemies batteries; the troops were much

much diminiſhed by the ſword and ſickneſs, and worn down by conſtant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis ſurrendered himſelf and his whole army by capitulation to general Waſhington, as priſoners of war*. Fifteen hundred ſeamen underwent the fate of the garriſon, but theſe, with the Guadaloupe frigate of 24 guns and a number of tranſports, were aſſigned to M. de Graſſe, as a return for the French naval power and aſſiſtance.

Such was the iſſue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be ſoon or eaſily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of thoſe who had flattered themſelves with the ſubjugation of the colonies by arms. The ſurrender of this ſecond Britiſh army may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continental war in America; for the immenſe expence of carrying it on ſo diſtant from the ſeat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effuſion of human blood it had occaſioned; the diminution of trade and the vaſt increaſe of taxes—theſe were evils of ſuch a magnitude, ariſing from this ever to be lamented conteſt, as could ſcarcely be overlooked even by the moſt inſenſible and ſtupid. Accordingly on the firſt of March, 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, the houſe addreſſed the king, requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of ſo offenſive a war againſt the American colonies. This was a moſt important event, it rendered a change of meaſures and of councils abſolutely neceſſary, and diffuſed univerſal joy throughout the kingdom. Thoſe country gentlemen who had generally voted with the miniſtry, ſaw the dangers to which the nation was expoſed in an expenſive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a ſingle ally, and feeling the preſſure of the public burdens, they at length deſerted the ſtandard of adminiſtration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auſpices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the Treaſury.

The firſt buſineſs of the new miniſtry, was the taking meaſures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was alſo directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were alſo directed to acquaint the congreſs with the pacific views of the Britiſh court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more deſirable to the nation. A ſeries of loſſes agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. The valuable iſland of Jamaica would ſoon probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the Count De Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to ſupport the centre, and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French ad-

* The American return made the number of priſoners 7,247 land and marine.

miral in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was in our poſſeſſion, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated, and admiral Rodney's reputation and intereſt were greatly promoted. The new miniſtry, for his conduct at St. Euſtatia, and differences with ſome of his captains, and with the merchants and planters, had ſuperſeded him, and intended to have proſecuted the enquiry into the tranſactions at Euſtatia; but this victory ſilenced all, and procured him the dignity of an Engliſh peer. No other advantages followed; not one of the iſlands taken from us by the French, was attempted to be recovered, notwithſtanding the great naval ſuperiority; and unhappily, the Ville de Paris, and moſt of the other French ſhips taken by admiral Rodney, were loſt at ſea before they could reach England, beſides two of our own ſhips of the line.

May 7th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the Britiſh arms was well ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot the governor, and their formidable attack on the 13th of September with floating batteries of 212 braſs cannon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants in them. The garriſon was relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this, were few and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and Trincomale on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions, but none deciſive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withſtand, with various ſucceſs, all the efforts of Sir Eyre Coote, and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1ſt of July, occaſioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and leſſened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new adminiſtration. Lord Shelburne ſucceeded the marquis as firſt lord of the treaſury, and it is ſaid, without the knowledge of his colleagues. This gave great offence to ſome, particularly to Mr. Fox and lord John Cavendiſh; who, with others, reſigned their places, and commenced a fierce oppoſition in the houſe of commons. Mr. Fox declared, "that the principles on which the miniſtry firſt came in, were abandoned by lord Shelburne and his adherents; that the *old ſyſtem* was to be revived, moſt probably with the *old men*, or indeed with any men that could be found. They were perſons whom neither promiſes could bind, nor principles of honour ſecure: they would abandon fifty principles for the ſake of power, and they would now ſtrive to ſtrengthen themſelves by any means which corruption could procure; and he expected to ſee in a very ſhort time, they would be joined by thoſe very men whom that houſe had precipitated from their ſeats." The duke of Richmond, general Conway, and others, maintained, that there was no deviation in the preſent cabinet from the principles on which they had entered into office, and continued to act with lord Shelburne, till under his auſpices the preliminaries for a general peace were ſettled. Then, the public beheld Mr. Fox, and even lord John Cavendiſh, coaleſcing

aleſcing with the old miniſters, lord North particularly; embracing the very men whom they had driven from their ſeats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace as making too great conceſſions to the enemy, that they might ſtorm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and ſeat themſelves and the men they had deſpiſed, in their places.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France*, Great Britain ceded to France, of her poſſeſſions before the war, the iſland of Tobago, in the Weſt Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts in the Eaſt Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it agreed alſo to reſtore the iſlands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the iſland of Goree; with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoire of Surat, in the Eaſt Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent diſputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French line for fiſhing ſhould begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and going round by the North, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the Weſtern ſide; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with reſpect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to reſtore to Great Britain the iſlands of Granada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montſerrat; and guaranticd Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each ſtate in the Eaſt Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification, but if they were averſe to peace, no aſſiſtance on either ſide was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power Eaſt Florida, and alſo ceded Weſt Florida, and Minorca which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſunderſtanding for the future, it was agreed that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict lying between the rivers Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the courſe of the ſaid rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to reſtore the iſlands of Providence, and the Bahamas, to Great Britain, but they had been re-taken before the peace was ſigned.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledges New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's Bay, Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates*, and for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhed all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof. To prevent all diſputes in future on the ſubject of boundaries between theſe ſtates and the remaining provinces to Great Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, and ſome favourable clauſes were obtained for the Loyaliſts. The navigation of the Miſſiſſippi to remain open to both parties, as alſo the Newfoundland fiſheries.

* Preliminary articles ſettled January 20, 1783.

In the treaty with the Dutch great difficulties aroſe, but at length it was ſtipulated, that Great Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies in the Eaſt Indies, with liberty to treat for its reſtitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a moſt calamitous war, in which Great Britain loſt the beſt part of her American colonies, and many thouſand valuable lives, and expended or ſquandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of the peace were to many, a ſubject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary to have borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum*, would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at leaſt to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual modes of funding. The ceſſions made on the part of Great Britain, can ſcarcely be eſteemed worth the expence of but one year's war, eſpecially conſidering the exhauſted ſtate of the country and its revenues, and of the national ſpirit, through the rage of parties and the luſt of ambition and power. But no ſooner were the preliminary treaties with France and Spain, and the proviſional articles with America preſented to parliament, than they met with a violent oppoſition, and were reprobated as highly injurious to the dignity and intereſts of the nation. It was contended on the other ſide, that a peace was abſolutely neceſſary, and was called for by the people with an unanimity and vigour that could not be reſiſted; that our ability to ſupport ſo enormous an expence had no ſolid foundation, but the revenues precarious and deluſive; that the ceſſions, was the unavoidable conſequence of the ruinous policy of the former adminiſtration in plunging the nation into ſuch a conteſt; and the charges of maintaining Minorca, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, had been exceſſive, ſo that their conferring them on Spain was a burden to her rather than an emolument. The object of the war was alſo at an end, for the independency of America had been long before recogniſed by parliament- commerce was declining daily, and the terms of the peace, conſidering the true ſtate of the nation, were advantageous and honourable, and could only be oppoſed by pride, or ignorance, or faction, the effect of party rage and ambitious intrigue. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried in the houſe of lords, by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, thus enliſting under the banner of the *famous coalition-leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated a miniſterial revolution to be near at hand, unleſs the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen juſt mentioned were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord of the Treaſury, on April 2, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburn propoſed, ſeemed now to be dropt. Every thing went on juſt as the coalition adminiſtration pleaſed, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the Eaſt India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progreſs and fate, we have already given in our account of that trading company*. This bill being

* Page 259.

rejected

rejected in the houſe of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houſes of parliament. The ſame day, it was aſſerted in the lower houſe, that ſhould the bill be loſt among the peers, it was by written reports or meſſages to this effect, "*His majeſty* will not only conſider as not being *his friend*, every perſon who votes for the preſent India bill, but he will look upon thoſe who ſupport it, as *his enemies*; and if lord T———e can find ſtronger words to convey his majeſty's wiſhes to that effect, he is at liberty to uſe them." Accordingly, after long debate, the commons reſolved by a conſiderable majority, "That it is now neceſſary to declare, that to report any opinion, or pretended opinion, of his majeſty, upon any bill, or other proceeding depending in either houſe of parliament, with a view to influence the votes of the members, is a high crime and miſdemeanour, derogatory to the honour of the crown, a breach of the fundamental privileges of parliament, and ſubverſive of the conſtitution of this country." This, with other reſolutions, and ſome words which dropped from Mr. Fox, and lord North, the next day in the houſe of commons, in ſupport of a motion for adjournment to the next week, which was thought to be intended merely to protract the buſineſs of parliament, and put the ſupplies in hazard, occaſioned their diſmiſſion, and the political death of the coalition miniſtry. A royal meſſage was ſent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to ſend the ſeals of their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing in his friends into the reſpective departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſince his majeſty's acceſſion.

A diſſolution of the houſe of commons being now feared by the coalition, they voted and carried an addreſs to the king, to repreſent the dangers which appeared to them likely to follow from a prorogation or diſſolution of the parliament in the preſent arduous and critical conjuncture of public affairs, and humbly to beſeech his majeſty to hearken to the advice of his faithful commons, and not to the *ſecret advices* of perſons who may have private intereſts of their own, ſeparate from the true intereſts of his majeſty and the people." The king aſſured them, he would not interrupt their meeting by any exerciſe of his prerogative, either of prorogation or diſſolution. Before the houſe adjourned over the holidays, it reſolved, on the 24th of December, "That the lords of the treaſury ought not to conſent or authorize the Eaſt India directors to accept any more bills, or to a greater amount than 300,000 l. unleſs they ſhall be able to prove to parliament, that they have ſufficient means to provide for the payment of them, after they ſhall have made their dividend and diſcharged the debt due to government, or unleſs they had the direction of that houſe." This was thought to convey an imputation, as if Mr. Pitt intended to make a bad uſe of the power veſted by law in the treaſury.

As ſoon as the houſe met, it was ſaid, that the two great rival parties who had coaleſced and forgotten their former differences and anathemas againſt each other, intended to monopolize all the power in the country. On the 12th of January, 1784, the coalition majority, in a committee on the ſtate of the nation, reſolved, "That it is the opinion of this committee, in the preſent ſituation of his majeſty's dominions, it is peculiarly neceſſary that there ſhould be an adminiſtration which has the *confidence of this houſe* and the people." And an amendment being propoſed to inſert

after the word "confidence," the words "*of the crown*," it paſſed in the negative. They alſo reſolved, "That it is the opinion of this committee, that the late changes in his majeſty's councils were immediately preceded by dangerous and univerſal reports that his majeſty's ſacred name had been unconſtitutionally abuſed to effect the deliberations of parliament, and that the appointments made were accompanied by circumſtances new and extraordinary, and ſuch as do not conciliate or engage the confidence of this houſe." On the 16th of January, they carried the following reſolution: "That it is the opinion of this committee, it having been declared by this houſe, that, in the preſent ſituation of his majeſty's dominions, an adminiſtration ſhould be formed, which poſſeſſed the confidence of this houſe, and the public; and the preſent adminiſtration being formed under circumſtances *new* and *extraordinary*, ſuch as were not calculated to conciliate the affections, or engage the confidence of the houſe; and his majeſty's *preſent miniſters* ſtill holding high and reſponſible offices after ſuch a declaration, is *contrary to true conſtitutional principles*, and injurious to his majeſty and his people."

It was a new doctrine that the king ſhould diſcharge thoſe who had by no one act as yet rendered themſelves undeſerving confidence as miniſters, and appoint new ones, out of compliance to one part of the houſe of commons only: and it was impoſſible for him to comply with the reſolution that he ſhould appoint ſuch as might have the confidence of that houſe and of the public; for the majority of that houſe were compoſed of the members of the coalition, ſtriving for places and power, and the public, by their numerous addreſſes, were in general evidently averſe to their conduct, and incenſed at every thing belonging to the appellation of "Coalition." A diſſolution of parliament was the alone poſſible method to appoint an adminiſtration which had the confidence of the houſe of commons and the public; ſending the members to their conſtituents for approbation or rejection, and for freſh credentials. On the 23d of January, Mr. Pitt's Eaſt India bill was rejected in the houſe of commons by 222 againſt 214 on the ſecond reading, without ſending it to a committee for diſcuſſion and amendment, and leave was given for Mr. Fox to prepare and bring in another. Now, ſome leading independent gentlemen (as they ſtyled themſelves) interpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with diſtractions, and tended to the ruin of all; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united adminiſtration, proved unſucceſsful.

At laſt, February 4, the houſe of lords took up the affair, and particularly adverted to the reſolution of the commons reſpecting the limiting the lords of the treaſury as to Eaſt India bills. It was contended, that the houſe of commons had arrogated to itſelf that power which the conſtitution had refuſed, for it denied to the lords of the treaſury that right which the legiſlature in its complete capacity had inveſted them with, namely, the power of permitting the Eaſt India directors to accept bills to ſuch an amount as the diſcretion of the treaſury board ſhould admit. That no one branch of the legiſlature could in any manner ſuperſede a ſpecific ſtatute of the three conſtituent parts. That it was their lordſhips firſt duty to ſupport the laws and the conſtitution againſt the encroachments of all other power whatſoever. That the houſe of commons had gone beyond the letter and the ſpirit of its privileges; and that unleſs the endeavour ſhould be actually repelled, a violent wound was given to the conſtitution.

conſtitution. That they had good grounds for declaring the houſe of commons had aſſumed unconſtitutional powers; for they would center in themſelves a legiſlative juriſdiction: and whatever was the ruſe, whatever it might be, that meaſure of duty, juſtice to the conſtitution, and public neceſſity ſhould induce, it was nothing, taken as an equivalent for protecting the ſymmetry of the conſtitution, and the liberties of the ſubject. That it was an uſurpation in any one branch of the legiſlature, the king, lords, or commons, to aſſume a power of ſuſpending or diſpenſing with an act of the legiſlature; and that the reſolution of the commons aſſumed a control, pointing out a ſpecific conduct. Accordingly, by a majority of 100 to 53, they reſolved, that for any branch of the legiſlature to aſſume a power to direct or control an authority veſted in any ſet of men by act of parliament, and to be exerciſed by them at their own diſcretion, is unconſtitutional and illegal. They next reſolved, that the conſtitution veſted in the crown the right of appointing his miniſters; and then moved for, and carried the following addreſs to the king; "We acknowledge with great ſatisfaction, the wiſdom of our happy conſtitution, which places in your majeſty's hands the undoubted authority of appointing to all the great offices of executive government. We have the firmeſt reliance in your majeſty's known wiſdom and paternal goodneſs, that you will be anxious to call into your ſervice, men the moſt deſerving of the confidence of the parliament and the public in general. In this confidence we beg leave to approach your majeſty with our moſt earneſt aſſurances, that we will upon all occaſions ſupport your majeſty in the juſt exerciſe of thoſe prerogatives which the wiſdom of the law has entruſted to your majeſty, for the preſervation of our lives and properties, and upon the due and uninterrupted exerciſe of which, moſt depend the bleſſings which the people muſt derive from the beſt of all forms of government."

From theſe proceedings it was evident, that a war would ariſe between the two houſes, which could only be put an end to by a diſſolution of parliament. The commons exclaimed againſt the lords, and proceeded to vindicate themſelves to the public, by ſeveral reſolutions.

Perſons of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and independent character in the houſe of commons, and in the kingdom, now wiſhed that a diſſolution had taken place weeks before, even at the firſt forming of the coalition. Many laboured for a conciliation between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox, and their confidential friends; and lord North, at length, conſented to be left out in the forming a new adminiſtration; but the coalition inſiſted on Mr. Pitt's reſignation as a preliminary, without which there could be no treaty. This being refuſed, a majority of 21 out of 333 members of the houſe of commons voted the following addreſs to the king: "That this houſe, impreſſed with the moſt dutiful ſenſe of his majeſty's paternal regard for the welfare of his people, relies on his majeſty's royal wiſdom, that he will take ſuch meaſures as, *by removing any obſtacle to the formation of ſuch an adminiſtration as this houſe has declared to be requiſite in the preſent critical and arduous ſtate of public affairs*, may tend to give effect to the wiſhes of his faithful commons which have already been moſt humbly repreſented to his majeſty."

The reply was mild, but in favour of his ſervants; and this anſwer brought things to a criſis: the oppoſition now talked of withholding all ſupplies, till the king diſmiſſed his miniſters, and proceeded, March 1ſt, to vote another addreſs of more length and greater freedom, which was

carried by 201 to 189: to this addreſs, a ſtrong and deciſive anſwer was returned, which evidenced firmneſs in the king or his cabinet, as "Gentlemen, I have already expreſſed to you how ſenſible I am of the advantages to be derived from ſuch an adminiſtration as was pointed out in your unanimous reſolution. And I aſſured you that I was deſirous of taking every ſtep moſt conducive to ſuch an object: I remain in the ſame ſentiments; but I continue equally convinced, that it is an object not likely to be obtained by the diſmiſſion of my preſent miniſters.

"I muſt repeat, that no charge or complaint, or any ſpecific objection, is yet made againſt any of them: if there were any ſuch ground for their removal at preſent, it ought to be *equally* a reaſon for not admitting them as a part of that extended and united adminiſtration which you ſtate to be requiſite.

"I did not conſider the failure of my recent endeavours as a final bar to the accompliſhment of the purpoſe which I had in view, if it could have been obtained on thoſe purpoſes of fairneſs and equality, without which it can neither be honourable to thoſe who are concerned, nor lay the foundation of ſuch a ſtrong and ſtable government as may be of laſting advantage to the country—but I know of *no further ſteps* which I can take, that are likely to remove the difficulties which obſtruct that deſirable end.

"I have never called in queſtion the right of my faithful commons to offer me their advice upon every proper occaſion, touching the exerciſe of any branch of my prerogative.

"I ſhall be ready at all times to exerciſe it, and give it the moſt attentive conſideration—they will ever find me diſpoſed to ſhew my regard to the true principles of the conſtitution, and to take ſuch meaſures as may beſt conduce to the ſatisfaction and proſperity of my kingdom."

The gentlemen who led the houſe of commons, or the ſmall majority of it, into thoſe reſolutions and addreſſes, began now to ſee their miſtake. Their arguments juſtified all the evils that had attended lord North's adminiſtration ſo many years, he having the full confidence of the houſe, however obtained; and would juſtify every other corrupt ſet. But they had advanced too far to retreat with decency, and accordingly proceeded to poſtpone the mutiny bill as a means of protracting their political exiſtence, which they carried by only a majority of nine. On March 8th, Mr. Fox made his laſt effort, and moved for a third addreſs, or rather *remonſtrance* to the king, which for the ſake of recording this greateſt of all queſtions and conteſts between the commons and the crown's prerogative, ſince the unhappy days of Charles I. we have inſerted in our quarto edition.

This repreſentation and addreſs of the commons to the crown, was carried but by a majority of *one*, 191 to 190, which as it required no anſwer, ſo put an end to the diſpute between the different branches of the legiſlature. The coalition party gave up the conteſt, and looked forward to a ſpeedy diſſolution of the houſe. The national buſineſs went on regularly and quietly—the neceſſary bills were forwarded in both houſes, and March 24th an end was put to the ſeſſion. The next day a proclamation was iſſued for diſſolving that preſent parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the deſires and addreſſes of a great part of the kingdom. Juſt at that critical period, the great ſeal was ſtolen from the houſe of the lord chancellor, which occaſioned many ſuſpicions as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new ſeal was preſently

preſently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament aſſembled, and the commons choſe Mr. Cornwall, the ſpeaker of the late houſe, for their preſent ſpeaker. The next day, his majeſty addreſſed them from the throne, which he concluded with the following words. "The affairs of the East India company form an object of deliberation deeply connected with the general intereſts of the country. While you feel a juſt anxiety to provide for the good government of our poſſeſſions in that part of the world, you will, I truſt, never loſe ſight of the effect which any meaſure to be adopted for that purpoſe may have on our own conſtitution, and our dear intereſts at home. You will find me always deſirous to concur with you in ſuch meaſures as may be of laſting benefit to my people. I have no wiſh but to conſult their proſperity, by a conſtant attention to every object of national concern, by an uniform adherence to the true principles of our free conſtitution, and by ſupporting and maintaining, in their juſt balance, the rights and privileges of every branch of the legiſlature." A very feeble oppoſition was made to the addreſs of thanks in the houſe of lords, and it ſoon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour. Many, whom lord North had bound to him by his douceurs when in power, were thrown out; and others deſerted him, finding his vaſt influence was at an end. Several of Mr. Fox's friends loſt alſo their ſeats, and in the firſt two conteſts, it was plain that the coalition could do little more than ſpeak; their views were diſappointed in turning out the peace-makers and ſeating themſelves in their room, their forces melted away, and the young miniſter obtained a complete triumph over them. The firſt queſtion on which they tried their ſtrength, was the Weſtminſter election. Mr. Fox wanted a vote of cenſure on the high bailiff for not making a return to the writ on the appointed day, but delaying it for a ſcrutiny. A previous queſtion was put on the motion, and carried by a majority of 147;—283 againſt 136. The ſame evening, May 24th, on a diviſion of the houſe for an addreſs to the king's ſpeech, the numbers for it without any alteration or amendment, were 282 againſt 14.

Notwithſtanding ſo great a majority, ſtill the members of the oppoſition much impeded the wheels of government, and threw many difficulties in the way of adminiſtration. On the 11th of June, Mr. Burke in a long ſpeech, expatiated on the merits of the laſt parliament, reprobated the king's ſpeech at the opening of the new one, and the addreſs of thanks for it, and ſtated that his purpoſe was to move, "That an humble remonſtrance be preſented to his majeſty aſſerting the rights of the houſe of commons, and reprobating the conduct of the king's miniſters in having adviſed his majeſty to break his royal word, and diſſolve his parliament after he had pledged his faith to the laſt houſe of commons, that he would not make ſuch an exerciſe of his prerogative before they had got through the arduous buſineſs upon their hands; and likewiſe for having adviſed his majeſty to make a ſpeech to the new parliament from the throne, full of doctrines the moſt unconſtitutional and alarming." The motion conſiſted of ſeveral folios, which the ſpeaker was above an hour in reading to the houſe, containing a defence of the laſt houſe of commons, a detail of their conſtitutional rights, and a ſevere reprehenſion of his majeſty's miniſters for having violated them in various inſtances. The motion was negatived without a diviſion, but as the main queſtion was ſuffered to be put, the whole of the motion was of courſe entered on the journals of the houſe, which ſeems to have been the mover's only intention.

On

On the 16th of June, in a debate to appoint a committee to enquire into the preſent ſtate of repreſentation of this country, lord North, and Mr. Fox were in oppoſition, and Mr. Pitt and Dundas, whom he had made treaſurer of the navy: Dundas argued on the ſide of his old friend lord North, and was againſt any alteration; others thought the time of the motion to be improper, and on the previous queſtion being put, it was dropped by 149 againſt 125. The miniſter now went on with his ways and means for ſupplies, and by lowering the tea duty, which he thought would ruin the ſmugglers, he was forced to deviſe other taxes which will be found very heavy and burdenſome to the public, if not greatly ſink his popularity with them. The window tax eſpecially, which is both partial and oppreſſive, ſcreening the lordly and wealthy, who are to pay but for two houſes, and the higheſt ſum for each is only 20l. A great number of unneceſſary places might have been aboliſhed, large reductions of offices and ſalaries in every department according to the reports of the commiſſioners of accounts; and more provident loans might have been made, to the ſaving at leaſt 200,000l. per ann. which would have precluded many of the obnoxious taxes of this ſeſſions.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous Eaſt India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company*, with a few obſervations on it. Time alone will diſcover whether it was framed with wiſdom and circumſpection, and whether it will be adequate and effectual to the great purpoſes intended, and held forth to view. With very little oppoſition, all the ſyſtem of new bills and taxes was framed and carried through both houſes, and the parliamentary campaign cloſed on the 20th of Auguſt, with a complimentary ſpeech from the throne, wiſhing his faithful ſubjects to meet the new heavy burdens with fortitude and patience. It is to be hoped, that from this period the prince and his miniſters of ſtate, will endeavour to alleviate the ſufferings of the people, by œconomy and reformation in the civil liſt, diſcountenancing extravagance and corruption, and promoting by their example public ſpirit, the love of their country, and the proſperity of trade and the community.

## Genealogical List of the Royal Family of Great Britain.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue:

1. George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762.
2. Prince Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763, elected biſhop of Oſnaburgh, February 27, 1764, created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784.
3. Prince William Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765.
4. Princeſs Charlotte, born September 29, 1766.
5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.
6. Princeſs Auguſta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.

* Page 260.

8. Prince

8. Prince Erneſt Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771.
9. Prince Frederic Auguſtus, born January 27, 1773.
10. Adolphus Frederic, born February 24, 1774.
11. Princeſs Mary, born April 25, 1776.
12. Princeſs Sophia, born November 3, 1777.
13. Princeſs Amelia, born Auguſt 7, 1783.

Iſſue of the late prince of Wales by the princeſs Auguſta of Saxe Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.
2. His preſent majeſty.
3. Prince William Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25, 1743.
4. Prince Henry Frederic, duke of Cumberland, born November 7, 1745.

His late majeſty's iſſue by queen Caroline, now living:

Princeſs Amelia Sophia, born June 10, 1711.

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# WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has diſtinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with the common cuſtom, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

## Extent and Situation.

| | Miles. | | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 130 | between | 51 and 54 | North latitude. |
| Breadth | 96 | between | 2,41 and 4,56 | Weſt longitude. |

Area in ſquare miles 7011.

Name and language.] The Welch, according to the beſt antiquaries, are deſcendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in England about fourſcore years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiſcuouſly uſed by the ancient Britons), that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a ſtrong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers by thoſe who underſtand it.

Boundaries.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were ſhut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat weſtward. It does not however appear, that the Saxons ever made any farther conqueſts in their country than Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See England.

Climate, soil, and water.] The ſeaſons are pretty much the ſame as in the Northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome. The ſoil of Wales, eſpecially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn.

corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-ſtone and ſlate, ſeveral mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſupplied with wholeſome ſprings; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endleſs to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous; and their mountainous ſituation greatly aſſiſted the natives in making ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] In theſe particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue, and their black cattle are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the other productions of Wales, ſee England and Scotland. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch linen may be known by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The inhabitants of Wales are ſuppoſed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the neceſſaries, and many of the conveniencies of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in ſome years ago about forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible, but their anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity, but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more ancient, and better atteſted, than that of the Anglo Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince, that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency, for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards; an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hoſpitality, and their ſtrict adherence to ancient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not conform to the Romiſh ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of

of abſolving them from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welſh clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a vaſt diſcouragement to religion and learning, but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating chriſtian knowledge has in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two ſchoolmaſters were employed, to remove from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants; and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vaſt expence Bibles, Common-prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales is that of the church of England; but the common people in many places, as ſo tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome ancient families among them are ſtill Roman Catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid, that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe. And it is certain, that the principality contains great numbers of Proteſtant Diſſenters.

For BISHOPRICKS (See England). We are to obſerve, that in the former times, Wales contained more biſhopricks than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invaſion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a ſeat of learning at a very early period; but it ſuffered an eclipſe by the repeated maſſacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it was perſecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the Reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's, and his wife's burying place was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman Catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Lhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman; as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord-keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, I muſt be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hicks, and other antiquaries, have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Lhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua). I muſt not, however, omit the excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With

With regard to the preſent ſtate of literature among the Welch, it is ſufficient to ſay, that ſome of them make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars. The Welch Pater-noſter is as follows:

*Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſancteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: ayro i ny heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant yn eos oeſoedd.* Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey *, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen, who wear ſcarlet gowns, and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen; and part of the country is ſo fertile and pleaſant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. I am however to obſerve that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts by a little expence: witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh, and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high, called the Maiden-ſtone; but the remains of the Druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the Druidical rites and religion. To give a deſcription of the Roman altars, antiquities, and utenſils, which have been diſcovered in Wales, would be endleſs; but future antiquaries may make great diſcoveries from them. Among the other artificial curioſities, is king Offa's dyke, which is ſaid to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-caſtle in Glamorganſhire, is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great Britain, excepting Windſor; and the remains of it ſhew it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other over-hangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

* The iſle of Angleſea, which is the moſt weſtern county of North Wales, is ſurrounded on all ſides by the Iriſh ſea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow ſtrait, called Menei, which in ſome places may be paſſed on foot at low water; the iſland is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 pariſhes. It was the ancient ſeat of the Britiſh druids.

Near

Near the town of Flint are the remains of a large ancient caſtle, in which Richard II. was confined, ſome time before his depoſition; and a variety of Roman antiquities have been found in this town, which is ſuppoſed to have been a Roman ſtation.

Some curious coins of Welch princes are ſaid to be found in the cabinets of the curious; but I do not find that they have been very ſerviceable in aſcertaining the ancient hiſtory of the country.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, are the following. At a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the ſea. In Merionethſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's Well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch ſupported by pillars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone. Over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent which was made him of the very ſhift in which his great-grandmother, Mary Stuart, loſt her head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or ſcarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greateſt rains. After a violent fall of wet, it becomes diſcoloured by a wheyiſh tinge. The ſmall town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and till very lately, when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular meaſurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleaſing proſpects and picturesque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. It lies under two capital diſadvantages. The firſt is, that by making it the rendezvous of all the Engliſh marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally deſtroy the ſhipping, however ſtrongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The ſame objection however lies to every harbour that contains ſhips of war and merchantmen. The ſecond, and perhaps the chief diſadvantage it lies under, is the ſtrong oppoſition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it muſt meet with in parliament from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt-country members,

members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth and Portſmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated, with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties, and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The ſhires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe of Caermarthen, Pembrokeſhire, and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; as have likewiſe thoſe of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other juſtice-aſſiſtant was ordained to the former juſtices; ſo that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two juſtices, viz. one chief-juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice-aſſiſtant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, I have already mentioned the land-tax; and the crown has a certain, though ſmall property, in the product of the ſilver and lead-mines; but it is ſaid that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich Dien*, I ſerve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſaint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1ſt of March, and for which various reaſons have been aſſigned.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people cut out ſo much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely ſubdued; yet part of their country, as appears from the ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. Though the Saxons, as hath been already obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Povetia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the fron-

frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppoſe them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts againſt the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties; and even the Engliſh hiſtorians admit the injuſtice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a handle for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Griffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an irreſiſtible army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin; but at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon caſtle, that the Welch having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recogniſe his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always ſince deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England becomes now the ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a preſident, was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

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# IRELAND.

## Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th clime, where the longeſt day is 17½ hours.

The extent or ſuperficial content of this kingdom, is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead

north, to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the eaſt part of Down, to the weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth 160 miles, and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 150 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than 20 miles, and the paſſage from Holyhead in North Wales about 52 miles.

NAMES AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT and MODERN. More conjectures as to the Latin (Hibernia) the Iriſh (Erin) as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland have been formed than the ſubject deſerves. It probably takes its riſe from a Phœnician or Galic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. I ſhall follow the laſt diviſion, as being the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt ancient.

| | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Leinſter, 12 counties | Dublin | Dublin |
| | Louth | Drogheda |
| | Wicklow | Wicklow |
| | Wexford | Wexford |
| | Longford | Longford |
| | Eaſt Meath | Trim |
| | Weſt Meath | Mullingar |
| | King's County | Philipſtown |
| | Queen's County | Maryborough |
| | Kilkenny | Kilkenny |
| | Kildare | Naas and Athy |
| | Carlow | Carlow |
| Ulſter, 9 counties. | Down | Down Patrick |
| | Armagh | Armagh |
| | Monaghan | Monaghan |
| | Cavan | Cavan |
| | Antrim | Carrickfergus |
| | Londonderry | Derry |
| | Tyrone | Omagh |
| | Fermanagh | Enniſkillen |
| | Donegall | Lifford |
| Connaught, 5 counties. | Leitrim | Carrick on Shannon |
| | Roſcommon | Roſcommon |
| | Mayo | Ballinrobe & Caſtlebar |
| | Sligo | Sligo |
| | Galway | Galway |

Munſter,

| | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Munſter, 6 counties. | Clare | Ennis |
| | Cork | Cork |
| | Kerry | Tralee |
| | Limerick | Limerick |
| | Tipperary | Clonmel |
| | Waterford | Waterford |

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moiſt, the ſeaſons in general being much wetter. The ſoil is rocky, but extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itſelf, when properly cultivated. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep, and the Iriſh wool is excellent. The prodigious ſupplies of butter and ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the ſtrongeſt proofs of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil.

The bogs of Ireland are very extenſive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others alſo which are very extenſive, and ſmaller ones ſcattered over the whole kingdom: but it has been obſerved, that theſe are not in general more than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of 10 or 12,000l. and communication might alſo be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Colerain; the Boyne falls into St. George's channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, they fall into the channel at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, the beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh: and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Though thoſe loughs, in the main, have but few properties that are not in common with the like bodies of water in other countries, yet they have given riſe to many traditionary accounts among the natives, which diſfigure and diſgrace their true hiſtory; and even modern geographers have been more copious on that head than either truth or the ſubject can admit of. The Iriſh are ſo fond of loughs, that, like the Scots, they often give that term to inlets of the ſea.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the ſpungy nature of that ſoil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in ſtrengthening the ſides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *ſlieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a *beinn* or binn ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland, however, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom; of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous hiſtories that are annexed to ſome of them. Some of theſe mountains contain in their bowels, beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulſter there are great foreſts, and in the county of Donegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; alſo in the county of Fermanagh, along Lough Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is ſome good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Several contain ſilver and lead, and it is ſaid that thirty pounds of their lead-ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been diſcovered at Tipperary: as likewiſe iron-ore, and excellent free-ſtone for building. Some of the Iriſh marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red ſtriped with white. Quarries of fine ſlate are found in moſt of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoke; and it contains a cryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe peculiarities, with the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe to the well-known proverb,

That Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the ſame as thoſe of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moſs, which are of vaſt ſervice for firing, where wood and coals are ſcarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have been long ſince exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as ſpaniels. What I have already obſerved about the Iriſh exportation of ſalt proviſions, ſufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs and ſheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are ſaid to be more plentiful there than in England. The fiſh that are caught upon the coaſts of Ireland are likewiſe in greater plenty than on thoſe of England, and ſome of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Ireland is ſaid to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I ſuſpect that the calculation is overcharged by near half a million. As it is of great conſequence to aſcertain as near as poſſible the number of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we ſhall give them according to the beſt accounts, as they ſtood in the four provinces in 1733.

| | Proteſtant Families. | Popiſh Families. |
|---|---|---|
| In Ulſter | 62,620 | 38,459 |
| Leinſter | 25,238 | 92,424 |
| Munſter | 13,337 | 106,407 |
| Connaught | 4,299 | 44,133 |
| Total | 105,494 | Total 281,423 |

Which, as five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and ſeven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 ſouls. I am apt to think, when we conſider the waſte of war by ſea and land, and the vaſt emigrations of the Iriſh to England, the Britiſh colonies, and other nations, that the above calculation may nearly ſerve for the preſent times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly riſen on the ſide of Proteſtantiſm; and in ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament, it has been aſſerted, that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions.

As to the manners of the ancient Iriſh, Dr. Leland obſerves, that if we make our enquiries on this ſubject in Engliſh writers, we find their repreſentations odious and diſguſting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the moſt animated encomiums of their great anceſtors. The one can ſcarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthuſiaſtic ardour, can ſcarcely diſcover the leaſt imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The hiſtorian of England ſometimes regards them as the moſt deteſtable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raiſes them to an illuſtrious eminence, above all other European countries. Yet, when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their moſt brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civili-

zation, a ſtate which exhibits the moſt ſtriking inſtances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With reſpect to the preſent deſcendants of the old Iriſh, or, as they are termed by the Proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, they are generally repreſented as an ignorant, uncivilised, and blundering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhips. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be accounted for from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greateſt number of them are Papiſts, and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with an abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They have alſo laboured under many diſcouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they have been diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon: formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of their lateſt airs are lively; and, when ſung by an Iriſhman, extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, though one would wiſh to ſee it aboliſhed. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, excepting their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders, who ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food; for however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty, ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads in that primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands have been loſt to the community and to themſelves, who, if they but had an equal chance with their neighbours, of being inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, and

and been inured and encouraged to induſtry and labour, would have added conſiderable ſtrength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themſelves of the uncomfortable ſituation in which the Iriſh were at home, by alluring them to enter their ſervice; and in this they have hitherto been aſſiſted by prieſts and jeſuits, whoſe intereſt it was to infuſe into the minds of their credulous diſciples an averſion to the Britiſh government: but we have now the pleaſing proſpect of a happy reformation among theſe people, in conſequence of the late laws paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain in favour of Ireland, as well as from the numerous Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools lately eſtabliſhed over the kingdom; which inſtitution will undoubtedly ſtrike deeper at the root of popery, than all the endeavours of the Britiſh monarchs to reduce them.

The deſcendants of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on; eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I. and other Preſbyterians, who fled from perſecution in that country in the ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves, and eſtabliſhed that great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth the linen manufactory, which they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review, it appears, that the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt, upon the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendants of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation, in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known, but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. Among the bulk of the people in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent Proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid progreſs in the towns and communities. How far it may be the intereſt of England, that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, I ſhall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts, who are all of them connived at or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever ſince the days

of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civiliſing and converting the Iriſh Papiſts to Proteſtantiſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working-ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country in the world can ſhew greater public-ſpirited efforts than have been made by the government of Ireland, ſince that time, for theſe purpoſes, but many of the parliamentary grants of this kind have been trifled with and perverted.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

The biſhoprics are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limeric, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language, occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort, who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning ſeems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran ſays, that the Iriſh 'appear to have been, from the moſt remote antiquity, a poliſhed people, and that with propriety they may be called, the Fathers of Letters.' We are even told, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is repreſented as the great anceſtor of the Iriſh nation. But theſe accounts are conſidered by many as fabulous: and it has been obſerved that no literary monuments have yet been diſcovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Chriſtianity into this country; and that the evidence of any tranſaction previous to this period, reſts entirely on the credit of Chriſtian writers, and their collections from old poets, or their tranſcripts of records deemed to have been made in the times of Paganiſm.

It is ſaid, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Chriſtian preachers there, whoſe votaries were pious and obedient. Camden obſerves, that, 'the Iriſh ſcholars of St. Patrick profited ſo notably in Chriſtianity, that, in the ſucceeding age, Ireland 'was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks ſo greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they ſent whole flocks of moſt learned men into all parts 'of Europe, who were the firſt founders of Lieuxeu abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburgh, in Franconia; St. 'Gall, in Switzerland: and of Malmſbury, Lindisfarran, and many other 'monaſteries in Britain.' We have alſo the teſtimony of venerable Bede,

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and ſays, that 'it appears from the moſt authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales.'

that

that about the middle of the ſeventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for inſtruction, or for an opportunity of living in monaſteries of ſtricter diſcipline: and that the Scots (as he ſtyles the Iriſh) maintained them, taught them, and furniſhed them with books, without fee or reward: 'a moſt honourable teſtimony,' ſays lord Lyttelton, 'not 'only to the learning, but likewiſe to the hoſpitality and bounty of that nation.' Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired iſland, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confuſion, gave peculiar luſtre to this ſeat of learning: nor is it improbable or ſurpriſing, that ſeven thouſand ſtudents ſtudied at Armagh, agreeable to the accounts of Iriſh writers, though the ſeminary of Armagh was but one of thoſe numerous colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Iriſh have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may alſo be particularly mentioned Sir Richard Steele, biſhop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldſmith.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſity, which is denominated Trinity-college. It conſiſts of two ſquares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three ſides of one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a very ſuperb library, but being built of bad ſtone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inſide is beautiful and commodious, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one ſide were collected by archbiſhop Uſher, who was one of the original members of this body, and the moſt learned man it ever produced. The new ſquare, three ſides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament Square, is of hewn ſtone; and the front of it, next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilaſtres, feſtoons, &c. The provoſt's houſe has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland ſtone. The chapel is a very mean ſtructure, as is alſo the old hall, wherein college exerciſes are performed; but the new hall in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their muſeum, is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are done upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt a whole life of a French artiſt.

This ſeminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and three ſcholars; which has, from time to time, been augmented to twenty-two fellows, ſeventy ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. However, the whole number of ſtudents is at preſent about four hundred; who are of three claſſes, fellow-commoners, penſioners, and ſizers or ſervitors. Of the fellows, ſeven are called ſeniors, and the annual income of each of theſe is about ſeven hundred pounds. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to be worth three thouſand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. The viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQUITIES

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. I have already mentioned the wolf dogs in Ireland. The Iriſh goſ-hawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giant's Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, 'that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is like that loſt in the water.

'The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

'But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone-towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incurſions, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light-houſes or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marſeilles, and is ſuppoſed

ſuppoſed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles north-weſt of London, and near ſixty miles weſt from Holyhead in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage-veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious and noble quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants doors and warehouſes. A ſtranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurpriſed with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. The increaſe of Dublin, within theſe laſt twenty years, is incredible, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 7000 houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. The number of houſes in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings erected ſince. This city, in its appearance, bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſea veſſels as far as the cuſtom-houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when compared with the Thames of London. Over it are two handſome bridges, lately built, of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the cuſtom-houſe, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purpoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex-bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. A new exchange has been lately erected, an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with ſemi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and completeſt building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot and 1000 horſe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, round which is a gravel-walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock; and in fine weather make a very gay appearance.

pearance. Many of the houſes round the green are very ſtately, but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stephen's Green, now laid out and partly built. The houſes being lofty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as far as the firſt floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. This ſuperb pile is in general of the Ionic order, and is at this day juſtly accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beauties. The portico in particular is, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts have alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building a ſtone-wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, and of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord-mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other, in ſhew and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are 18 pariſh churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch proteſtants, 7 preſbyterian meeting houſes, 1 for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-inn hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatic; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way a ſtranger turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility in Ireland, almoſt keep pace with thoſe erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it muſt be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively ſpeaking, has expended ſuch ſums as the grants of the Iriſh parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and ſoul of whatever is carried on: witneſs the many noble erections, churches hoſpitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of ſurpriſe, that with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be claſſed among the ſecond order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn which deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for by the long, and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland,

land, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland, may by this means become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs that runs through the whole: but in thoſe countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, the extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently preſent themſelves in various forms and ſhapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleaſing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houſes. Its haven is deep, and well ſheltered from all winds; but ſmall veſſels only can come up to the city, which ſtands about ſeven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom: and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee iſlands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were 11 churches in Cork, though there are now only ſeven, and yet it has ever ſince that time been eſteemed a thriving city; but it muſt be obſerved, that beſide the churches, there are at this time ſix maſs-houſes, two diſſenting meeting-houſes, another for quakers, and a chapel for French proteſtants. Kinſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellent harbour, and conſiderable commerce and ſhipping: and it is, moreover, occaſionally a ſtation for the navy royal; for which end this port is furniſhed with proper naval officers and ſtorekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and ſhipping, and contains 2561 houſes. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city, it lies on both ſides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houſes.

Belfaſt is a large ſea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus bay. Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) by ſome deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually called) ſtands on Lough-Foyl, is a ſtrong little city, having linen manufactures, with ſome commerce and ſhipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each others coaſts. Donegal, the county-town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. All which laſt mentioned places, and many more (though leſs conſiderable ones), are chiefly and moſt induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vaſt annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland: and likewiſe to render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her abſentees, leſs grievous to her.

Though

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts are furniſhed with deputy governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with any public edifices, to compare with thoſe to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide, but it has ſome elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The parliament-houſe, caſtle, Eſſex-bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent; and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland. The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjuſt, where there are ſo many equal in taſte and magnificence, to particularize any. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I muſt not forget the numerous barracks where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have ſaid of England under this head, is in a great meaſure applicable to Ireland. Her exports are linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horſes and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins and furr, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and ſome other particulars; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increaſed by the late laws paſſed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. It is certain that the Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to a conſiderable height, and that their lord-lieutenants, and their courts, have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make uſe of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe I know none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as ſuch: neither can the Dublin ſociety for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen-hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland formerly was only entitled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtyle was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recogniſed by act of parliament in the ſame reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted and governed, continued in a ſtate of dependence, it was thought neceſſary that it ſhould conform to, and be obliged by, ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe.

But

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought neceſſary, ſome years ago, to declare how that matter ſtood; and therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it is declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the Britiſh parliament, was, however, far from giving general ſatisfaction to the Iriſh nation, many of whom diſputed the dependency of Ireland upon the parliament of Great Britain more than ever. After many ſtruggles, feeling their own ſtrength by means of their volunteer aſſociations, and encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties contending for the adminiſtration in England, the Iriſh obtained, in the year 1782, a formal repeal of the above galling ſtatute, which was conſidered as a renunciation on the part of the parliament of Great Britain of every claim of legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents; but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, biſhops, earls, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and generally ſits once every year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about three hundred. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The repreſentation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland, is in many inſtances like that of England, partial and inadequate. As long as a majority of the commons is compoſed of members for inſignificant boroughs, and where a few individuals are devoted to the ſelfiſh or imperious will of a ſtill ſmaller number of lords or abſolute grandees, a ſpirit of venality muſt pervade the political ſyſtem through all the departments of ſtate, corrupt the repreſentatives, and deſtroy the freedom of the legiſlative body. If parliaments were ſtill more limited in their duration, it would be better for the public, and greatly promote national proſperity. The laws are made by the houſe of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by

his

his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are alſo in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears, that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular purpoſes; but there is beſides this, a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to exceed half a million ſterling, of which the Iriſh complain greatly, and juſtly, that about 70,000l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the improvement of their country and civilizing the people; ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament.

Coins.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh were, is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

Military strength.] Ireland now maintains and pays a conſiderable body of troops, who have been often of ſingular ſervice to England; and the military force of Ireland has been greatly increaſed by the many volunteer aſſociated companies, which have been lately formed in that kingdom. Thoſe parts of Ireland that are moſt uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little ſenſe either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order; witneſs the late inſurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were inſtigated by their prieſts; though it muſt be confeſſed, that many of the common people in Ireland have laboured under ſuch oppreſſions as afforded them juſt grounds for diſcontent. It does not however appear, that the bulk of the Iriſh Catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his deſcent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the Pretender in the laſt rebellion.

Order of St. Patrick.] This order was inſtituted February 5, and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand maſters of the order, and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbiſhop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter of the order. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a croſs, with the motto round *Quis ſeparabit*, 1783; faſtened

faſtened by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial. A ſtar of eight points encircles it on the coat.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that of any other country, be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety-ſeven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to about 500 years before the Chriſtian æra, at which time they aſſert, that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſettled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country; and that however it might have been peopled ſtill earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the ſons of Mileſius, gave a race of kings to the Iriſh, diſtinguiſhed from their days by the names of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted parts of the Iriſh hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Chriſtianity in this country, though there had been Chriſtian miſſionaries here long before, by whoſe means it had made a conſiderable progreſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; but in the years 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or, as they were called, the Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſts of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſtone edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and but very few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeem to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power; and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a deſign of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from ſome of the Iriſh chieftains, who had afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to his enemies. His deſign was patronized by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, and an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor (who it ſeems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him, upon taking an oath of fidelity to the crown of England for himſelf, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Thoſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I.

and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers; but Mac Turkil, the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtate in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh, about the ſame time, to the amount of above 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and going over to England, he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hand all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderic O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as nearly as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free cuſtoms, ſay their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh. Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh, almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter, which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the deſcendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired

quired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies; and being ſupported by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he was at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham, the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved ſo as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh expedition into Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition, that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, finding himſelf deſerted by his Engliſh ſubjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York; and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond party and other adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter, and he was the *firſt Iriſh chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title as duke of Lancaſter; and therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding his plauſible pretences to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward IV. He was, however, at laſt recogniſed as king by the Iriſh; and in the preceding pages, under the

hiſtory of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect, during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this, the houſe of Auſtria found their account in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions on the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to ſpeak the truth, it was ſomewhat ſurpriſing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are well known in the Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord deputy Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhewn to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehenſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they inſtigated Sir Calim O'Dogharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain.

Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that proteſtant plantation in the North of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman Catholics in general, were influenced by their prieſts to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacring all the Engliſh Proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſenſions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed in 1641 their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers, ſome of whom have mounted the number of the ſufferers to 40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000, and ſome have even diminiſhed that number*. What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh Papiſts upon themſelves, belongs to the hiſtory of England. It is certain that they ſmarted ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor and brother James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in perſon; a victory, however, on which depended the ſafety of the proteſtant religion, and the liberties of the Britiſh empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been reinſtated on the throne, and nothing elſe could be expected than that being irritated by oppoſition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every reſtraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and purſued more arbitrary deſigns than before. The army of William conſiſted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000, but advantageouſly ſituated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undiſciplined rabble; but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too ſoon for a brave man.

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account of the Iriſh rebellions and the Revolution, are almoſt incredible; and had the acts of parliament

* Mr. Guthrie's account of the numbers killed in the Iriſh maſſacre is much below that generally given. Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practiſed by the Papiſts upon the Proteſtants, ſays, "By ſome computations, thoſe, who periſhed by all thoſe cruelties, are made to amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thouſand; by the moſt moderate, and probably the moſt reaſonable account, they muſt have been near 40,000." Hiſt. of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. 8vo. 1763.

which gave them away been ſtrictly enforced, Ireland muſt have been peopled with Britiſh inhabitants. But many political reaſons occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The friends of the Revolution and the proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates. Too many of the Roman Catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance ſhould be preſerved between the Roman Catholic and the proteſtant intereſt. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The lenity of the meaſures purſued in regard to the Iriſh Roman Catholics, and the great pains taken for the inſtruction of their children, with the progreſs which knowledge and the arts have made in that country, have greatly diminiſhed the popiſh intereſt. The ſpirit of induſtry has enabled the Iriſh to know their own ſtrength and importance; to which ſome accidental circumſtances have concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made occaſionally for permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though ſome laws and regulations had occaſionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it muſt be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence of ſundry unjuſt and injudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England reſpecting their trade. Theſe reſtraints had injured Ireland without benefiting Great Britain. The Iriſh had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England: the conſequence of which was, that the Iriſh wool was ſmuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had alſo been laid on the exportation of proviſions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The diſtreſſes of the Iriſh manufacturers, as well as thoſe of Great Britain, had likewiſe been much increaſed by the conſequences of the American war. Theſe circumſtances occaſioned great murmuring in Ireland, and ſome attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom in the Britiſh parliament, but for ſome time without ſucceſs: for a partiality in favour of the trade in England prevented juſtice from being done to Ireland. But ſeveral incidents, which happened afterwards, at length operated ſtrongly in favour of that kingdom. When a large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a conſiderable number of Iriſh gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other perſons, armed and formed themſelves into volunteer companies and aſſociations, for the defence of Ireland againſt any foreign invaders. By degrees, theſe volunteer aſſociations became numerous and well-diſciplined: and it was ſoon diſcovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themſelves againſt foreign enemies. When theſe armed aſſociations became numerous and formidable, the Iriſh began to aſſume an higher tone than that to which they had before been accuſtomed: and it was ſoon manifeſt, that their remonſtrances met with unuſual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May, 1779, preſented an addreſs to the king, recommending to his majeſty's moſt ſerious conſideration the diſtreſſed and impoveriſhed ſtate of the loyal and well-deſerving people of Ireland, and deſiring him to direct that there

ſhould

ſhould be prepared, and laid before parliament, ſuch particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as ſhould enable the national wiſdom to purſue effectual meaſures for promoting the common ſtrength, wealth, and commerce of his majeſty's ſubjects in both kingdoms. To this addreſs the king returned a favourable anſwer: and in October, the ſame year, both houſes of the Iriſh parliament alſo preſented addreſſes to his majeſty, in which they declared, that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could ſave it from ruin. Notwithſtanding which, it being ſoon after ſuſpected by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themſelves with vigour in promoting the intereſts of the nation, a very daring and numerous mob aſſembled before the parliament-houſe in Dublin, crying out for a *free trade* and a *ſhort money-bill*. They aſſaulted the members, and endeavoured to compel them to ſwear that they would ſupport the intereſt of their country by voting for a ſhort money-bill; and they demoliſhed the houſe of the attorney-general. The tumult at length ſubſided; and two Iriſh money-bills, for ſix months only, were ſent over to England, where they paſſed the great ſeal, and were immediately returned, without any diſſatisfaction being expreſſed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean time the members of the oppoſition, in the Engliſh parliament, very ſtrongly repreſented the neceſſity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wiſhes. The arguments on this ſide of the queſtion were alſo enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer aſſociations in that kingdom amounted to forty thouſand men, unpaid, ſelf-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in diſcipline, and which afterwards increaſed to eighty thouſand. The Britiſh miniſtry appeared for ſome time to be undetermined what part they ſhould act in this important buſineſs: but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous meaſures reſpecting America, and the very critical ſituation of Great Britain, at length induced the firſt lord of the treaſury to bring in ſuch bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly paſſed, by which all thoſe acts were repealed, which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been reſtrained: and it was likewiſe enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America, and the Weſt Indies, and the Britiſh ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, ſhould be allowed to be carried on in the ſame manner, and ſubject to ſimilar regulations and reſtrictions, with that carried on between Great Britain and the ſaid colonies and ſettlements.

Theſe laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom: and the Iriſh nation, being indulged in their requiſitions reſpecting trade, now began alſo to aim at important conſtitutional reformations; and in various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the Britiſh parliament to make laws which ſhould bind that kingdom, was denied in public reſolutions. By degrees, the ſpirit which had been manifeſted by the Iriſh parliament ſeemed a little to ſubſide; and a remarkable inſtance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny-bill, for the regulation of the Iriſh army, though that of England had always been paſſed, with a true conſtitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed againſt by ſome of the Iriſh patriots; and it is indeed not eaſy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconſiſtency; but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial

advantages afforded them by late acts in their favour, have greatly contributed to promote the proſperity of Ireland. As before obſerved, by the act repealing the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. they are now fully and completely emancipated from the juriſdiction of the Britiſh parliament. The appellant juriſdiction of the Britiſh houſe of peers in Iriſh cauſes, was likewiſe given up. But though the Iriſh have obtained ſuch great extenſion of their liberties, it is queſtioned whether it will terminate to their country's real advantage:—their parties and diſſenſions increaſe, and the controverſy of England with that kingdom is far from being ended; much remains to eſtabliſh ſuch a commercial and political connection as will promote the intereſt and happineſs of both countries, and make them one great ſtable and invulnerable body. Every change of adminiſtration in England hath produced new lord lieutenants among them, but harmony and confidence are not yet reſtored, though the duke of Rutland's adminiſtration this year ſeems firmer than the preceding. However, in the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing and giving an aſylum to many families of the Geneveſe who were baniſhed from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themſelves for the cauſe of liberty, not willing to ſubmit to an ariſtocracy of their own citizens, ſupported by the ſwords of France and Sardinia.

I might here conclude the geography and hiſtory of Great Britain and Ireland, were it not that ſeveral ſmaller iſlands are under the allegiance of the crown of England: and, having local privileges and diſtinctions, could not be comprehended under a more general head. In treating of them, therefore, I ſhall deviate from my common method, but obſerve brevity as much as the ſubject will permit.

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# ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was the iſle of Angleſea, not this iſland. Some think it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), becauſe lying in St. George's Channel, it is almoſt at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees ſixteen minutes north. It is ſaid, that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and puiſe. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the iſland, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almoſt a lump of fat, and eſteemed very deli-

cious. It is ſaid that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes, and four towns on the ſea-coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele, which of late years begins to flouriſh; Douglas has the beſt market and beſt trade in the iſland, and is the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea; Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds excepting the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice of his majeſty's revenue; and this neceſſarily leads me to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas, whom I have before mentioned, this iſland was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family-honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhoprick, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms and the iſland from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, alſo, retain many of their ancient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers; his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. One of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epiſcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſided over that dioceſe upwards of fifty-ſeven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety and the exemplarineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and his unremitting attention to the happineſs of the people entruſted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed

ſchools

ſchools for the inſtruction of the children of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome of his devotional pieces into the Manks language to render them more generally uſeful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every pariſh in his dioceſe. Some of his notions reſpecting government and church diſcipline were not of the moſt liberal kind: but his failings were ſo few, and his virtues ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a great bleſſing to the Iſle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well kept up in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and the Common Prayer Book have been tranſlated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the ſouth promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments, of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem to indicate the ſplendor of its ancient poſſeſſors.

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# ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS iſland is ſituated oppoſite the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles: it is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. Its greateſt length, extending from eaſt to weſt, meaſures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to ſouth above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the ſouthern parts; the ſoil is various, but ſo great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight: and it is ſuppoſed that its preſent produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increaſe of population. A range of hills, which affords fine paſture for ſheep, extends from eaſt to weſt, through the middle of the iſland. The interior parts of the iſland, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and pictureſque proſpects, not only in the paſtoral, but alſo in the great and romantic ſtyle. Of theſe beauties, the gentlemen of the iſland have availed themſelves, as well in the choice of ſituation of their houſes, as in their other improvements. Domeſtic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound

ſhips

ſhips and veſſels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furniſhing themſelves from this iſland.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty and variety of the landſcapes of this iſland, that it has been called the garden of England; it has ſome very fine gentlemen's ſeats; and it is often viſited by parties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes.

The iſland is divided into thirty pariſhes: and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thouſand and twenty-four, excluſive of the troops quartered there. Moſt of the farm-houſes are built with ſtone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, of which it may be conſidered as the capital. The river Medina empties itſelf into the channel at Cowes harbour, diſtant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal ſtreets of Newport extend from eaſt to weſt, and are croſſed at right angles by three others, all which are ſpacious, clean, and well paved.

Cariſbrooke caſtle, in the Iſle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a priſoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, died in it. There are ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouſes were built in different parts of the coaſts of England.

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The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their ſituation between the Engliſh channel and St. George's channel, they have been the deſtruction of many ſhips and lives. Some of the iſlands are well inhabited, and have large and ſecure harbours.

In the Engliſh channel are four iſlands ſubject to England: theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount Saint Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitute, 18 miles weſt of Normandy, and 84 miles ſouth of Portland. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planned, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon

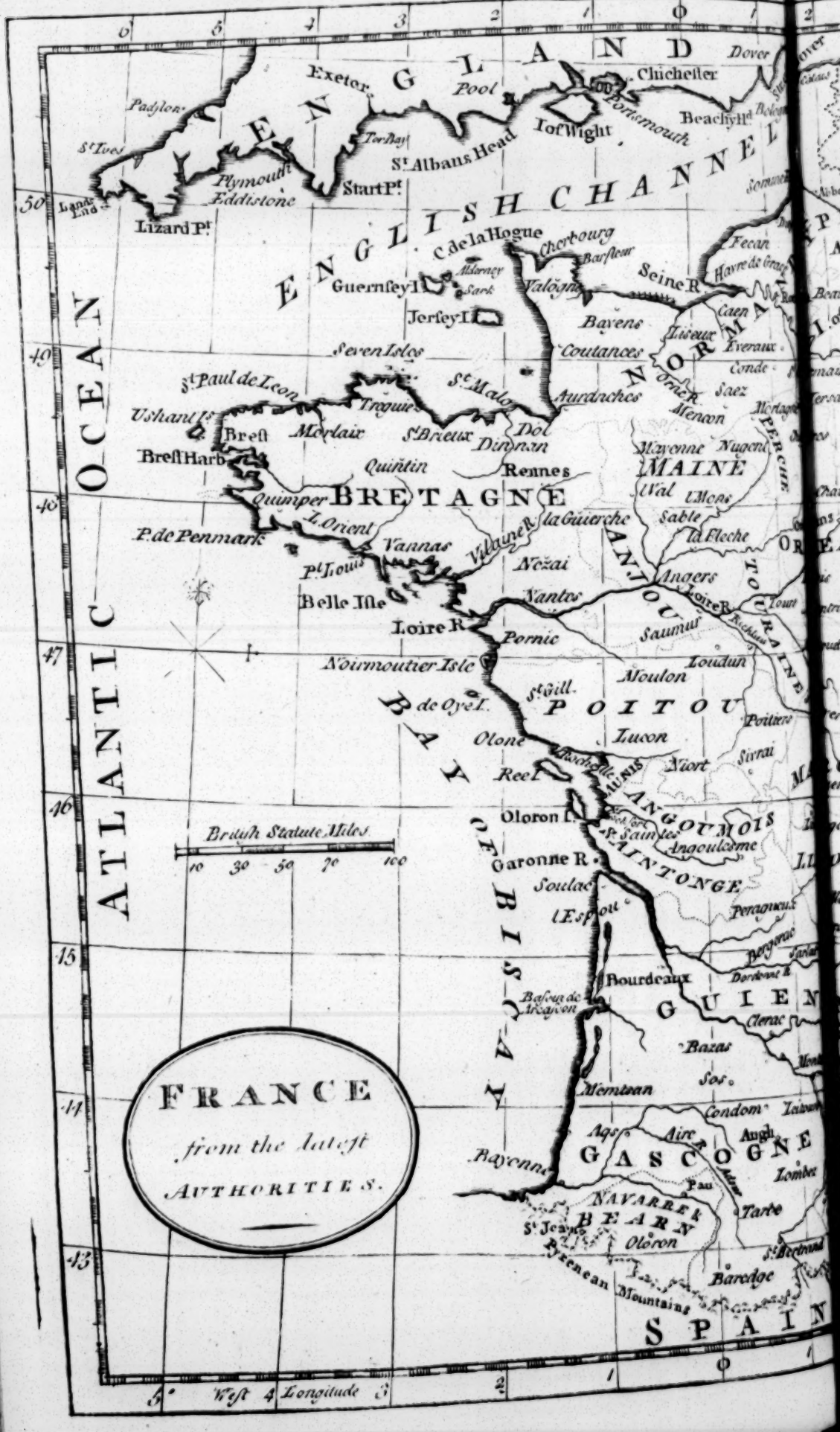
upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine; and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowl almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houſes, has a good harbour and caſtle, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recogniſe him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity; but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is as it were a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY, is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one a-piece. Though this is a much finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable; becauſe it is not ſo well cultivated, nor is it ſo populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants ſpeak French: but want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old-Caſtle, and the other Caſtle-Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three laſt-mentioned iſlands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England.


ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
Dover
Clicheſter
Exeter
Pool
Portſmouth
Beachy Hd
Padſtow
St Ives
Torbay
St Albans Head
Iſle of Wight
Plymouth
Eddiſtone
Start Pt
Lizard Pt
Cape de la Hogue
Cherbourg
Barfleur
Fecan
Alderney
Sark
Guernſey I
Jerſey I
Valogne
Seine R
Havre de Grace
Bayeux
Liſieux
Caen
Everaux
Coutances
Seven Iſles
St Paul de Leon
St Malo
Aurdnches
Tregur
Ushant Is
Breſt
Morlaix
St Brieux
Dol
Dinan
Breſt Harb
Quintin
Rennes
MAINE
Mayenne
Nugent
Quimper
BRETAGNE
Val
Sable
P de Penmark
L Orient
Vannas
la Gueerche
la Fleche
Pt Louis
Belle Iſle
Nozai
Angers
Nantes
Loire R
Pornic
Saumur
Noirmoutier Iſle
Loudun
Moulon
St Gill
POITOU
de Oye I
Poitiers
Olone
Lucon
Niort
Sivrai
Reed
Rochelle
AUNIS
ANGOUMOIS
Oloron I
St Saintes
Angoulesme
Garonne R
SAINTONGE
Soulac
l'Eſpoir
Perigueux
Bourdeaux
Baſcon de Medoc
GUIENNE
Bazas
Sos
Memiran
Condom
Ags
Aire
Augh
Bayonne
GASCOGNE
Pau
NAVARRE
BEARN
Tarbe
St Jean
Oloron
Barege
Pyrenean Mountains
SPAIN
British Statute Miles
10 30 50 70 100
FRANCE
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.
West 4 Longitude


NETHERLANDS
Antwerp
Ghent
Ostend
Sluice
Dunkirk
Bruffels
Maestricht
Liege
Lisle
Mons
Namur
Arras
Valenciennes
Cambray
Mezieres
Luxemburg
Triers
Frankfort
Mentz
Moselle R.
Rhine R.
PICARDY
Amiens
Lavan
Noyon
Soiffons
Rethel
Thionville
Compeigne
Rheims
Verdun
Metz
Chalons
Pontamuson
Senlis
Meaux
St. Michel
Nancy
Seine R.
PARIS
Bar le Duc
Strasburg
CHAMPAGNE
LORRAINE
ALSATIA
GERMANY
Melun
Bayon
Fontainbleau
Provins
Troyes
Barsur
Mirecourt
Colmar
Voree
Nemours
Seno
Joiani
Chau Dun
Langres
Basil
Vesoul
Montbeliard
Chatillon
Bonn
Donzi
Dijon
Loire R.
NIVERNOIS
Besancon
SWITZERLAND
Bourges
Arney le Duc
Nevers
Autun
Salins
Dorne
Moulins
Percei
Challons
Claude
Lausanne
Bourbon
la Palace
Macon
Lake of Geneva
St Porcaine
Roane
Bourg
Geneva
Riom
Trevaux
Bellay
Thiers
Clermont
Lyon
Chambery
Vienne
Romans
Moirau
ITALY
Isseire
Portdieu
Grenoble
Suza
St Flour
le Puy
Valence
Briancon
Turin
Aurillac
Dic
Gap
Malzion
Entraques
Viviers
Rhone R.
St Paul
Rodez
Mende
Orange
Sisteron
Digne
Var R.
Vabres
Carpentras
Arlenon
Alby
Vaux
Uzez
Pont St Esprit
Forcalquier
Nice
Onegla
Carillon
Milhaud
Montpelier
Ardes
Cimie
Frejus
Antibe
Toulouse
Castres
Beziers
Lodeve
PROVENCE
Aix
Mouth of Rhone
Toulon
St Papoul
Cette
Marseilles
Carcassone
Narbonne
Mirepoix
Alet
Hieres R.
Perpignan
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Collioure
LANGUEDOC
ROUSSILLON
First Longit. from London

# FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the Britiſh iſles, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and mighty kindom of France, being the neareſt to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

## Situation and Extent.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 600 | between | 5 Weſt and 8 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | 42 and 51 North latitude. |

Boundaries.] It is bounded by the Engliſh channel and the Netherlands, on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, Eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the bay of Biſcay, Weſt.

Diviſions.] This kingdom is divided, and the dimenſions of the ſeveral parts diſtinctly ſpecified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

| | Countries Names. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| France. | | | | | | |
| Papiſts | Orleannois | — | 22,950 | 230 | 180 | Orleans. |
| | Guienne | — | 12,800 | 216 | 122 | Bourdeaux. |
| | Gaſcoigne | — | 8,800 | 125 | 90 | Aux, or Augh. |
| | Languedoc | — | 13,175 | 200 | 115 | Thoulouſe. |
| | Lyonnois | — | 12,500 | 175 | 130 | Lyons. |
| | Champagne | — | 10,000 | 140 | 110 | Rheims. |
| | Bretagne | — | 9,100 | 170 | 105 | Rennes. |
| | Normandy | — | 8,200 | 155 | 85 | Rouen. |
| | Provence | — | 6,800 | 95 | 92 | Aix. |
| | Burgundy | — | 6,700 | 150 | 86 | Dijon. |
| | Dauphiné | — | 5,820 | 107 | 90 | Grenoble. |
| | Iſle of France | — | 5,200 | 100 | 85 | Paris N. Lat. 48-50. E. Lon. 2-25. |
| | Franche Compte | — | 4,000 | 100 | 60 | Beſançon. |
| | Picardy | — | 3,650 | 120 | 87 | Amiens. |
| | Rouſſillon | — | 1,400 | 50 | 44 | Perpignan. |
| Netherlands | Artois | — | 990 | 63 | 32 | Arras. |
| | Hainault | — | 800 | 57 | 22 | Valenciennes. |
| | Flanders | — | 760 | 58 | 22 | Liſle. |
| | Luxemburg | — | 292 | 48 | 13 | Thionville. |
| Germany | Lorrain | — | 2,500 | — | — | Metz. |
| | Alſace | — | 2,250 | 95 | 30 | Straſburgh. |
| | | Total | 138,687 | | | |

To theſe is to be added the iſland of Corſica; but the city of Avignon, with the Venaiſſin, was in 1774 ceded to the pope.

Name and Climate.] France took its name from the Francs, or *Freemen*, a German nation, reſtleſs and enterpriſing, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty. By its

its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themſelves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not nearly ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſely cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither the paſturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious ſecurity in their own property, do not apply themſelves ſufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. But nature has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vaſt plenty.

The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. I ſhall afterwards ſpeak of their canals and mineral waters.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauge, which divide Lorrain from Burgundy and Alſace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compté from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its courſe north and north-weſt, being, with all its windings, from its ſource to the ſea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its courſe, firſt, north-eaſt, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, ſoon after its riſe, runs to the north-weſt, viſiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the Engliſh channel at Havre. To theſe we may add the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which riſes near Havre de Grace, and diſcharges itſelf in the Bay of Biſcay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which riſes in Switzerland, is the eaſtern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moſelle and the Sarte in its paſſage. The Somme, which runs north-weſt through Picardy, and falls into the

Engliſh

Engliſh channel below Abbeville. The Var, which riſes in the Alps, and runs ſouth, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, weſt of Nice. The Adour runs from eaſt to weſt, through Gaſcoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biſcay, below Bayonne.

The vaſt advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which ariſes to France from thoſe rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immenſe expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered that purpoſe. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of eighteen leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpreſſibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomleſs. There is another at Iſſoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Beſſe, in which if you throw a ſtone, it cauſes a noiſe like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS.] The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The beſt judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental ſucceſs, with ſome great perſons, and the ſalubrity of the air and ſoil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alſace are ſaid to cure the palſy, weak nerves, and the ſtone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholeſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and thoſe of St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, therefore I muſt omit them, as well as many remarkable ſprings: but there is one near Aigne, in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taſte, but has a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die inſtantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is ſaid to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Alſace has mines of ſilver and copper, but they are too expenſive to be wrought. Alabaſter, black marble, jaſper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the beſt drab cloth; and in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for ſo[illegible] than thoſe of England. As to all kinds of ſeaſoning and ſallads they

they are more plentiful, and in ſome places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture. The province of Gaſtenois produces great quantities of ſaffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and other provinces of France, are ſo well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that though they differ very ſenſibly in their taſte and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly thoſe of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac: and there are few conſtitutions, be they ever ſo valetudinary, to which ſome one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, aſh, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is ſaid, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of ſalt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coaſt of Santoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent pot-aſhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh both in the management and diſpoſitions of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, are far inferior to the Engliſh; nor is the wool of their ſheep ſo fine. The hair and ſkin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than thoſe of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and thoſe of England, but that the former is not ſo well ſerved, even on the ſea coaſts, with ſalt-water fiſh.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts of France are thoſe of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, aſh, &c. and the foreſt of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchiſmoir is a foreſt of tall, ſtraight timber, of 4000 trees. Beſides theſe, large numbers of woods, ſome of them deſerving the name of foreſts, lie in different provinces; but too remote from ſea-carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the lateſt and beſt calculations, France contains at preſent about 20,000,000 of inhabitants. It was lately ſuppoſed, by ſome ſpeculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate inveſtigation, the reverſe appeared to be fact; though this country certainly loſt a great number of valuable inhabitants, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*. The proportion of the people of England to the people of France is certainly as $1\frac{1}{4}$ to one.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty; the peaſantry in general, are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with wo-

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Proteſtant, and juſtly ſtyled the Great after fighting his way to the crown of France, paſſed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; but his edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecutions, drove the people to England, Holland, and other Proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that perſecuted them.

men

women of the ſame ranks in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb-bridle in that exerciſe, and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the Engliſh; but the other ranks of life are deſpicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence not only of the Engliſh nobility and gentry in general, but of the middling people.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character; and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the common ſoldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroiſm. Hence it has been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead, if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This ſame principle of vanity is of admirable uſe to the government, becauſe the lower ranks, when they ſee their ſuperiors elated, as in the war of 1756 with England, under the moſt diſgraceful loſſes, never think that they are unfortunate: and from thence proceeds the paſſive ſubmiſſion of the French under all their calamities.

The French affect freedom and wit; but faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions engroſs too much of their converſation. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent, as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are exceſſively credulous and litigious: but of all people in the world they bear adverſity and reduction of circumſtances with the beſt grace; though in proſperity many of them are apt to be inſolent, vain, arbitary, and imperions. An old French officer is an entertaining and inſtructive companion, and indeed the moſt rational ſpecies of all the French gentry.

The French are eminently diſtinguiſhed by their politeneſs and good manners, which may be traced, though in different proportions, through every rank, from the greateſt of the nobility to the loweſt mechanic: and it has been remarked as a very ſingular phænomenon, that politeneſs, which, in every other country, is confined to people of a certain rank in life, ſhould here pervade every ſituation and profeſſion. Indeed, the poliſhed mildneſs of French manners, the gay and ſociable turn of the nation, and the affable and eaſy conduct of maſters to their ſervants, in ſome degree ſupply the deficiencies, and correct the errors of the government, and render the condition of the common people in France, but particularly at Paris, better than in ſeveral other countries in Europe.

The French have been much cenſured for inſincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable characters, and a great number of inſtances of generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs may be found amongſt them.

It is doing the French no more than juſtice to acknowledge, that, as they are themſelves polite, ſo they have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners, and even virtues of other nations. They have long poſſeſſed the lead in taſte, faſhion, and dreſs; but it ſeems now to be in the wane, and they themſelves think very favourably of the Engliſh. This alteration of opinion has not, however, entirely taken its riſe from their wits and learned men, and ſtill leſs from their courtiers, or the middle ranks of life. The ſuperior orders of men in France are of a very different caſt from thoſe below them. They ſee with indignation the frivolouſneſs of their court; and however complying they may appear in public, when retired, they keep themſelves ſacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themſelves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They ſaw during the war before the laſt, the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with ſilent indignation, and their reſearches were favourable to the Engliſh. The concluſion of the peace of Fontainbleau, and the viſits which they have ſince paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themſelves have fallen in with it; and, what ſome years ago would have been thought incredible, people of faſhion in France now ſtudy the Engliſh language, and imitate them in their cuſtoms, amuſements, dreſs, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education; and, to ſay the truth, the writings of ſuch men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raiſe the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more univerſal, and even a neceſſary ſtudy among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and cuſtoms of the French, without giving a more minute view of ſome ſtriking peculiarities obſervable among that whimſical people in private life, and this from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, who was alſo diſtinguiſhed by various other productions in polite literature.

"The natural levity of the French, ſays he, is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is by ſome prieſt or monk taught to read his mother-tongue, and to ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and to fence by the maſters of thoſe ſciences. He becomes a complete connoiſſeur in dreſſing hair, and in adorning his own perſon, under the hands and inſtructions of his barber and valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irreſiſtible. But he piques himſelf upon being poliſhed above the natives of any other country, by his converſation with the fair ſex. In the courſe of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns, like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes, ridiculous even to a proverb; and theſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without

out distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bedchamber while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends her at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissars, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed frizeur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit-maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petits-maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbiere* (barber's boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

"A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue, and this ridiculous foppery has descended to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

"I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very farthest verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed, that part of the fair sex, in some other countries, make use of *fard* and vermillion for very different purposes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not enquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shews, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on, as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner, as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard*, or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or sallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly; and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume."

The above picture of the manners of the French nation is drawn with wit and spirit, and is in some respects highly characteristic; but it is certainly not a flattering portrait; and the faults and failings of this viva-

cious people are, perhaps, by the author whom we have tranſcribed, too much magnified. With all their defects, the French have many good qualities, and are undoubtedly a very agreeable people to reſide among, at leaſt for a time; on account of the politeneſs of their manners, the great attention they pay to ſtrangers, and the general taſte for literature which prevails among thoſe in the better ranks of life. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and diſſipated city of Paris. Their opinions not only determine the merit of works of taſte and ſcience, but they have conſiderable weight with reſpect to the manners and ſentiments of people of rank, and of the public in general, and conſequently are not without effect in the meaſures of government.

DRESS.] The French dreſs of both ſexes is ſo well known, that it is needleſs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dreſs in cities and towns is ſo variable, that it is next to impoſſible to deſcribe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures. With regard to the Engliſh, they poſſeſs one capital ſuperiority, which is, that the cloaths of both ſexes, and their ornaments, are at leaſt one third cheaper.

When a ſtranger arrives in Paris, he finds it neceſſary to ſend for the taylor, perruquier, hatter, ſhoemaker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his cloaths to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the weather ſhould be ever ſo cold, he muſt wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-ſaiſon*, without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their ſacks and negligees muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffeties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, their ſattins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a cambler ſuit, trimmed with ſilver for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk clothes for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he muſt wear his bag-wig *à la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſable for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fopperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old-faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat, and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs; and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved, that the French nation, in their modes of dreſs, are in ſome meaſure governed by commercial circumſtances.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been ſo conſtant, that they have obtained the title of Moſt Chriſtian; and the pope, in his bull, gives the king of France the title of the Eldeſt Son of the Church. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to ſhake off the yoke of the popes, and made a very great progreſs in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the ſecret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jeſuits; a ſet that

that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Though the French clergy are more exempt than ſome others from papal authority, their church confining the pope's power entirely to things of an eccleſiaſtical nature, yet they are in general great enemies to any thing that looks like reformation in religion; and, poſſeſſed as they are of immenſe property, there muſt be a thorough coalition in opinion between the king and his parliaments, before any eccleſiaſtical reformation can take place; a proſpect which ſeems at preſent to be yet too diſtant. In the ſouthern parts of France, ſome of the clergy and magiſtrates are as intolerant as ever; and the perſecutions of the proteſtants, or, as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in thoſe provinces, continued till very lately. Since their alliance with America, the proteſtants have been more encouraged, and their aſſemblies for worſhip in many places not diſturbed. In ſhort, the common people of France diſcover no diſpoſition towards a reformation in religion, which, if ever it takes place, muſt probably be effected by the ſpirit of the parliaments. I ſhall not enter into the antiquated diſputes between the Moliniſts and the Janſeniſts, or the different ſects of Quietiſts and Bourignons, and others that prevail among the Roman Catholics themſelves, or into the diſputes that prevail between the parliament and clergy about the bull Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown. The ſtate of religion in France is a ſtrong proof of the paſſive diſpoſition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in complaiſance to the pope, have deprived their kingdom, as already hinted, of ſome of its moſt uſeful inhabitants. It muſt at the ſame time be owned, that the Hugonots, while they ſubſiſted in a manner as a ſeparate ſtate within France ſhewed ſome diſpoſitions not very favourable to that deſpotic ſyſtem of government which is eſtabliſhed in the kingdom; and on ſome occaſions they did not diſplay much moderation in matters of religion; but, in general, their oppoſition to the rulers and court, proceeded from repeated attacks on their liberties, and the perſecutions they ſuffered

Archbishopricks, bishopricks, &c.] In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbiſhops, 113 biſhops, 770 abbies for men, 317 abbies and priories for women, beſides a great number of leſſer convents, and 250 commanderies of the order of Malta; but many of the abbies and nunneries have been lately ſuppreſſed, and the revenues ſeized by the king. The eccleſiaſtics of all ſorts are computed at near 200,000 and their revenues at about ſix millions ſterling. The king nominates all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, and priors, and can tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: accordingly, not many years ſince, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to aſcertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their eſtates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the uſual free gift, which they pay every five years. This demand is often repeated in a time of war.

The archbiſhop of Lyons is count and primate of France. The archbiſhop of Sens is primate of France and Germany. The archbiſhop of Paris is duke and peer of the realm; and the archbiſhop of Rheims is duke and peer, and legate of the holy ſee.

Language.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues; a circumſtance that tended equally to his

greatneſs and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French language, at preſent, is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay; its corner ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were looſened; and in the preſent mode of writing and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French abandon that grammatical ſtandard, which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the Engliſh; but they are well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Pére qui es aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offencez. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car a toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, & la gloire aux ſiécle des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtile and quibbling logic which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings; among whom were Budeus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are alſo mentioned by every real ſcholar with reſpect. It was not, however, till the ſeventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Françoiſe was formed for this purpoſe: and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact, literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the preſent caſe. The Academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language: it was univerſally deſpiſed. Furetieres, a ſingle academician, publiſhes another: it meets with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes, upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deſervedly obtained a very high reputation: the firſt was diſtinguiſhed for ſkill in moving the paſſions; the ſecond for majeſty; and both, for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy,

medy, were they not every where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In works of ſatire and in criticiſm, Boileau, who was a cloſe imitator of the ancients, poſſeſſed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors: Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to ſurpaſs. The genius, however, of their religion and government, is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who have an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men who do honour to humanity; whoſe career no obſtacle could ſtop, whoſe freedom no government, however deſpotic, no religion however ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. As an hiſtorian, De Thou is entitled to the higheſt praiſe: and who is ignorant of Paſcal, or of the archbiſhop of Cambray? Few men have done more ſervice to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legiſlator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, there have lately ſeveral writers appeared in France, whoſe writings have breathed ſuch ſentiments of liberty, as were not very well accommodated to the arbitary government under which they live; and theſe ſentiments ſeem much to increaſe among the men of letters, and perſons in the higher claſſes of life: but the lower people in France, being leſs enlightened, and long habituated to deſpotic power, ſeem too well adapted for the yoke of ſlavery.

In the Belles Lettres and miſcellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many of the preſent age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with all the preciſion of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have almoſt vied with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy: Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he not ſtill more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philoſophy: he is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with

them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuſe, for portraits and converſation-pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in moſt other countries of Europe. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture; though we now bid fair for ſurpaſſing them in this art.

We ſhall conclude this head with obſerving, that the French have now finiſhed the Encyclopedie, or general dictionary of arts and ſciences, which was drawn up by the moſt able maſters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (ſix of which are copper-plates), under the direction of Meſſieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the moſt complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Theſe literary inſtitutions have received a loſs for the preſent by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them all over France; but as the extinction of this body of men will probably leſſen the influence of ſuperſtition in France, there is reaſon to believe that the intereſts of real learning and ſcience will, upon the whole, be promoted by that event. It is not within my plan to deſcribe the different governments and conſtitutions of every univerſity or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow: Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpelier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouſon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournoiſe, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French Academy, that of Inſcriptions, and that of the Sciences; one of painting and ſculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horſe, and other military exerciſes.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vaſt delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred; ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains for the uſe of that city, and is as freſh to this day as Weſtminſter-bridge: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other ſtupendous aqueducts,

to

to the ignorance of the ancients, that all ſtreams will riſe as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana, whoſe veſtiges are ſtill remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrie. The architecture and ſculpture of this building are ſo exquiſitely beautiful, that it enchants even the moſt ignorant: and it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be ſeen the remains of a palace, or thermæ, ſuppoſed to have been built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Dioclefian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large ſaloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free-ſtone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is to be ſeen an obeliſk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, and all but one ſtone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The moſt particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, beſides the neighbourhood of Niſmes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endleſs to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned ſeveral remarkable ſprings and mountains, which may be conſidered as natural curioſities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been alſo before noticed. There are ſome ſubterraneous paſſages and holes, eſpecially at St. Aubin in Brittany, and Niont in Dauphiny, really ſtupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Theſe are numerous in France; of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſter-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above ten thouſand regulars; and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambric, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about one hundred thouſand. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demoliſh, but is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers, and may now, by an article in the laſt treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French miniſtry may pleaſe. The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſ-

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ed upon in this point; particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is amazing; the regiſters of others are not known by the public; and many of the poorer ſort will not afford the ſmall expence of ſuch a regiſtering. Another peculiarity exiſting in London is, that moſt of the Londoners, who will afford the expence, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts, it does not exceed ſeven or eight hundred thouſand, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are ſhewy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the paradiſe of ſplendor and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelines* is unequalled for beauty and richneſs. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf; and the inſtitution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elſewhere. The Tuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hoſpital for the invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedneſs, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London: it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and is not furniſhed, as the Thames, with veſſels or boats of any ſort: over it are many ſtone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more ſhew than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers are moſtly common

* One *Goblei*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactory.

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hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily, from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendancy over other nations, is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapeſtry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London, in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, elegance of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is ſaid diſagrees with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcotting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcotting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with teſter and curtains; but bugs are here a moſt intolerable nuiſance, which frequently oblige ſtrangers to ſleep on the floor during the exceſſive heat in the ſummer. Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; nor has their government made the proviſions that are ever in its power for the comfort of the inferior ranks; its whole attention ſeeming to be directed to the conveniency and ſplendour of the great. The ſhopkeepers and tradeſmen, an indolent, loitering people, ſeldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dreſs, of velvet cap, ſilk night gown, and Morocco ſlippers; but when they intend a viſit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the reſemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of people and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, the invincible force of their armies, and the ſplendour of the grand monarque. The Pariſians however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkable temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butcher's meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine. The Pariſians ſcarcely know the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happen; and ſtrangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, meet with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patrolled at night by horſe and foot; ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night, to ſee that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the ſame excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but for the ſame reaſon, when robberies do happen, they are always attended

attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, England and Scotland excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns, and villages; ſome of them, being ſcattered on the edges of lofty mountains riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, and water works, (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance), are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of a luxurious court; but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall, but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh channel, with a moſt ſpacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt is a court of admiralty, and academy for ſea affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope-yards, ſtore-houſes, &c. inſomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy-royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy-royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king, has a particular ſtorehouſe for each ſhip of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of ſtone, is 320 toiſes or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtorehouſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtyled the Great, the famous Colbert, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading, as ſhe did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance which is neceſſary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, underſtand them better. It is to be conſidered at the ſame time, that France, by her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe. I have already enumerated her natural commodities; to which may be added, her manufactures of ſalt-petre, ſilk, embroidery, ſilver-ſtuffs, tapeſtry, cambrics, lawns, fine laces,

laces, fine ſerges and ſtuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy, which is diſtilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are ſmuggled into Great Britain, for which they are paid in ready money.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandſon Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the Proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000; and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England and Holland, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country.

Beſides the infinite advantage ariſing to her inland commerce, from her rivers and navigable canals, her foreign trade may be ſaid to extend itſelf all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſes by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt improveable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies ſhe likewiſe poſſeſſes the moſt important ſugar iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſſiſſippi.

The French poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, are not very conſiderable; though had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt India company never did much. At preſent (ſays Mr. Anderſon,) 'her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Straſburgh—To the Netherlands, through Liſle—To Spain (a moſt profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the weſtern ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence.'

One great diſadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profeſſion of a merchant is not ſo honourable as in England and ſome other countries, ſo that the French nobility think it below them; which is the reaſon that the church, the law, and the army, are ſo full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces; which muſt be very embarraſſing, eſpecially to ſtrangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The inſtitutions of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, formerly coſt the French crown immenſe ſums; but we know none of them now ſubſiſting, though no doubt their Weſt India trade, which is ſtill very con-

conſiderable, eſpecially in ſugar, is under proper regulations, preſcribed by their councils of commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The conſtitution of France in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy; but the oppreſſions of the great land-holders, by degrees, grew ſo irkſome to the ſubjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the ariſtocratical government. Ariſtocracy, however, ſtill ſubſiſted in ſome degree to the beginning of the laſt century, chiefly through the neceſſity which the Hugonots or proteſtants were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality for their leaders; but Richlieu in the time of Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow; and all the civil diſputes in France ſince, have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments; but the latter were ſeldom or never attended with any ſanguinary effects.

The preſent parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great Britain. It was originally inſtituted to ſerve as a kind of law aſſiſtant to the aſſembly of the ſtates, which was compoſed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom; and ever ſince it continued to be a law, and at laſt a money court; and the members have had the courage of late to claim a kind of a negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till regiſtered by them. His moſt Chriſtain Majeſty has often tried to invalidate their acts, and to intimidate their perſons; but deſpotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther puniſhment than a ſlight baniſhment, or impriſonment, for their moſt provoking acts of diſobedience.

This ridiculous ſituation between power and privilege, ſhews the infirmity of the French conſtitution, as the king dares not puniſh, and his parliament will not obey; but it diſcovers at the ſame time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian againſt the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a ſuperintendant, who pretty much reſembles the lord-lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extenſive. Diſtributive juſtice in France is adminiſtered by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, preſidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen; thoſe of Paris, Toulouſe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Beſançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of theſe parliaments, however, are now united in one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national buſineſs. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civil, judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminelle, receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal caſes. Beſide theſe three capital chambers, there are five of requeſts, for receiving the depoſitions of witneſſes, and determining cauſes, pretty much in the ſame manner as our bills and anſwers in chancery and the exchequer.

The next court of judicature in France is the chamber of accounts; where all matters of public finances are examined, treaties of peace and grants regiſtered, and the vaſſalages due from the royal fiefs are received. The chambers are in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpelier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Liſle, Aire, and Dole.

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The third court of judicature is the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and the raiſing of money, are determined.

The fourth are the preſidial courts, which are compoſed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magiſtrates of little towns and villages.

The next court are the generalities, who proportion the taxes to be raiſed in their diſtricts, according to the ſum that is appointed to be levied. They likewiſe take cogniſance of matters relating to the crown lands, and certain branches of the revenue. Theſe courts are in number twenty-three, each conſiſting of twenty-three perſons; and they are diſtributed over the kingdom for the more convenient diſpatch of buſineſs.

Subject to theſe generalities, are the courts of elections, which ſettle the ſmaller proportions of taxes that are to be paid by pariſhes and inferior diſtricts, and how much each individual in the ſame is to pay. This is done by a collector, who returns the aſſeſſments to the court of generalities. Beſides the above courts, the French have intendants of juſtice, police, and finances, whoſe powers, when properly executed, are of great ſervice to the peace of the community. They have likewiſe provoſts, ſeneſcals, bailiffs, and other officers, whom we have no room to enumerate.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the ſoil in France; her numerous manufactures and extenſive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, ſea-ports, rivers and canals: the cheapneſs of proviſions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets ſhe has ſent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their ſprightlineſs and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the moſt powerful nation, and her people the moſt opulent and happy in Europe. The reverſe, however, appears to be the ſtate of that nation at preſent: and we do not find, that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

True it is, that in a country ſo extenſive and fruitful, her government finds immenſe reſources in men and money: but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, theſe reſources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved the ruin of the people. The moſt obvious cauſes of this national poverty took their riſe from the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, which led them into ſchemes of univerſal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enſlaving of Chriſtendom. Their wars, which they ſometimes carried on againſt one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the ſubject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When theſe failed, other methods, more deſpotic and unwarrantable, ſuch as raiſing and reducing the value of money as it ſuited their own purpoſes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppreſſions, were adopted, which gave the finiſhing blow to public credit, and ſhook the foundations of trade, commerce, and induſtry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the nations around them, that man muſt be devoid of humanity whoſe breaſt is not raiſed with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a ſacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late attack upon Corſica, that their own misfortunes have not taught them wiſdom or humanity; for while they thus graſp after foreign conqueſt, their own country exhibits a pic-

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ture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription; and the paſſengers, who ſaunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty ſtreets, appear to be chiefly compoſed of prieſts and devotees paſſing to or from maſs, hair-dreſſers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it poſſible to mention a people more indigent than theſe citizens, we might deſcribe the farmers and peaſantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exiſt upon the gleanings, and his cattle, which are ſeldom numerous, pick a ſubſiſtence, in the ſummer months, from the ſkirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, diſpirited, and depreſſed, exhibits a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible: and to ſee him plowing the ground with a lean cow, aſs, and a goat yoked together, excites in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the beſt bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and theſe harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, make no ſcruple of fleecing the people moſt unmercifully; and the reſidue, if any do remain, goes to ſatisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn are obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immenſe ſums under the names of tenths and free-gifts, excluſive of which, they are now taxed with a certain ſum, to be paid annually.

REVENUES.] It is not eaſy to ſay any thing certain concerning the revenues of a prince who can command the purſes of all his ſubjects. In 1716, the whole ſpecie of France, in gold and ſilver, was computed to be about ſeventeen millions ſterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions ſterling, or 2000 millions of livres, yet by laying hold of almoſt all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raiſing or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France publiſhed a general ſtate of the public debts, by which it appeared that the king ſcarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of deſpotiſm, of the means by which ſo great a reduction was effected. The French court has not ſince that time bluſhed to own, as towards the concluſion of the former war, and alſo in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his miniſters have purſued meaſures pretty much ſimilar to thoſe practiſed by the regent, to recruit the royal finances.

According to ſome late calculations, the annual ordinary revenues of France amount to above twelve millions ſterling. Their taxes are raiſed by the taille, or land-tax; the tallion, which the nobility are obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another land-tax; by aids, which we call cuſtoms on merchandiſe; by gabels, which is a tax upon ſalt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of eſtates and employments; by the ſale of all offices of juſtice; by confiſcations and forfeitures; and by a tenth, or free-gift of the clergy, excluſive of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, which that body has of late advanced to the king.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better underſtood than in France. Beſides other methods for

for cultivating it, there is a royal military academy eſtabliſhed purpoſely for training up 500 young gentlemen at a time, in the ſeveral branches of this great art. In time of peace the crown of France maintains about 200,000 men, but at a very ſmall comparative expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two pence halfpenny per day. In time of war 400,000 have been brought into the field; but thoſe that are raiſed for the militia are very indifferent troops. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time 100 ſhips of the line, which was almoſt equal to the marine force of all Europe beſides. The French have, however, at ſea been generally defeated by the Engliſh. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine which it was long before it recovered. The late king Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious efforts towards re-eſtabliſhing his navy; but his officers and ſeamen were ſo much inferior to thoſe of England, that he ſeemed during the war of 1756, to have built ſhips of force for the ſervice of Great Britain, ſo frequent were the captures made by the Engliſh. However, after the commencement of hoſtilities between Great Britain and France, on account of the conduct of the latter in aſſiſting the revolted American colonies, it has appeared that the French navy is become more formidable than at any preceding period, their miniſtry having exerted their utmoſt efforts to eſtabliſh a powerful marine. The preſent navy of France conſiſts of about 100 ſhips of the line, beſides a great number of frigates.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY AND ORDERS. } The title aſſumed by the French king is, ſimply, king of France and Navarre; and by way of compliment he is called his Moſt Chriſtain Majeſty. His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field azure, ſupported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the ſame arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent.*

About the year 1349, Hubert, the laſt count of Dauphiny, being accidentally the occaſion of his ſon's death, annexed that county to the crown of France, upon condition that the eldeſt ſon of France ſhould be, for the time to come, ſtyled Dauphin.

The French nobility are of four kinds; firſt, the princes of the blood; ſecondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or thoſe made in the preſent reign. The firſt prince of the blood is the perſon who ſtands next to the crown after the king's ſons. The knights of the Holy Ghoſt are ranked among the higher nobility; as are the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there are ſeveral orders; *firſt*, that "*of St. Michael*," inſtituted in 1469 by Louis XI. and though originally compoſed only of thirty-ſix knights, was afterwards enlarged to a hundred. It is fallen into diſrepute, being conferred on artiſts, phyſicians, magiſtrates &c. Their badge is a golden oval medallion, in which is St. Michael trampling the dragon under his feet. A perſon muſt be a knight of this order before he can enter into the *ſecond* "*of the Holy Ghoſt*," which was founded in 1579 by Henry III. and is compoſed of a hundred perſons, excluſive of the ſovereign, and conferred only on princes of the blood, and perſons of the higheſt rank. All are to be papiſts, and, except the 14 commanders, which conſiſt of Cardinals, Prelates, and the officers of the order, are all to prove the nobility of their deſcent for above 100 years. The Dauphin is received into both orders on the day of his birth. *Third*, the order

"*of St. Louis,*" which was inſtituted in the year 1693 by Lewis XIV. merely for military merit, and is worn by almoſt every officer, and even ſubalterns. As of this order all muſt be papiſts, Lewis XV. inſtituted the order of *Military Merit* in the year 1759, in favour of the proteſtant officers of foreign regiments in the ſervice of France. In all other reſpects the ſtatutes are the ſame with thoſe of the order of St. Lewis. There are two Chevaliers Grand Croix, four of the ſecond claſs, and an unlimited number of ordinary knights. The badge of the order is a croſs of eight points, enamelled white, on the one ſide a ſword in pale, with the motto, *Pro virtute bellica*, and on the reverſe a chaplet of laurel within this inſcription, *Ludovicus* XV. *inſtituit anno* 1759. The order of *St. Lazare*, revived by Henry IV. in 1607, and united to that of *Notre Dame de Mount Carmel*, hath fallen into diſrepute, but ſtill continues, and conſiſts of 100 knights under a Grand Maſter: the badge is a croſs of eight points, in the angles four fleurs-de-lis, with the Virgin Mary and her child Jeſus in the centre of it.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to a Britiſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the downfal of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire, the firſt government in France ſeems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumſcribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The firſt Chriſtain monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the beſt French hiſtorians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and

and was baptized, and introduced Chriſtianity in the year 496: from which period the French hiſtory exhibits a ſeries of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domeſtic broils or in foreign wars. The firſt race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of thoſe dark ages, became maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his ſons, which proved fatal to his family and poſterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was perſuaded to profeſs himſelf a Chriſtain. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the perſon of William duke of Normandy, who ſubdued Harold, the laſt Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almoſt perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithſtanding their numbers, and the aſſiſtance they received from Scotland.

The rage of cruſading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite ſervice to the French crown in two reſpects: in the firſt place, it carried off hundreds of thouſands of its turbulent ſubjects, and their leaders, who were almoſt independent of the king: in the next, the king ſucceeded to the eſtates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But paſſing over the dark ages of the cruſades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we ſhall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to exceſs in his own perſon, and had defeated the Swiſs, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the imperial crown: Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen. Francis made ſome dazzling expeditions againſt Spain, but ſuffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuſe his power: by which he diſobliged the conſtable of Bourbon, the greateſt of his ſubjects, who joined in a confederacy againſt him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to diſhonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of thoſe conditions was afterwards the ſource of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithſtanding the variety of diſagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flouriſhing condition. Francis I. was ſucceeded by his ſon Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was

ſo well ſerved by the duke of Guiſe, that though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Spaniards and the Engliſh, he retook Calais from the latter, who never ſince had any footing in France. He married his ſon, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this ſcheme, he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis II. a weak, ſickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whoſe power was entirely engroſſed by a prince of the houſe of Guiſe, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engroſſment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a ſtrong oppoſition againſt the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catherine of Mediçis, being obliged to take part with the Guiſes, the confederacy, who had adopted the cauſe of Hugonotiſm, was broken in pieces, when the ſudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under ſentence of death for a conſpiracy againſt the court; but the queen-mother ſaved him, to balance the intereſt of the Guiſes; ſo that the ſole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her ſecond ſon, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued ſeries of diſſimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guiſe, who was the ſcourge of the Proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Poltrot, at the ſiege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjuſtly thought to have been inſtigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded each other. At laſt the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the Proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all if poſſible, in one night. This project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral fell; and it is ſaid that about 30,000 Proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had ſome time before been choſen king of Poland, and hearing of his brother's death, he with ſome difficulty eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the Proteſtants could raiſe armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The proteſtants under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the

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German princes to their aſſiſtance; and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another ſham peace. The king, ever ſince his acceſſion to the crown, had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the Proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretenſions. To ſecure himſelf on the throne, a ſeventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the diſadvantage of the Proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother the cardinal, were, by his majeſty's orders, and in a manner under his eye, baſely aſſaſſinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himſelf into the arms of the Proteſtants: but while he was beſieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greateſt force, he was in his turn aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a young enthuſiaſtic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of hiſtory are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the houſe of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guiſe; and they drew from his cell the decripid popiſh cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Being ſtrongly ſupported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, ſeemed only to make him more illuſtrioufly unfortunate; for he and his little court were ſometimes without common neceſſaries. He was however, perſonally beloved; and no objection lay againſt him but that of his religion. The leaguers on the other hand, ſplit among themſelves; and the French nation in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themſelves of the public diſtractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came ſecretly to a reſolution of declaring himſelf a Roman Catholic. This was called a meaſure of prudence if not of neceſſity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Iſabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guiſe.

In 1593 Henry went publicly to maſs, as a mark of his converſion. This complaiſance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained abſolution from the pope, all France ſubmitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with,

* A ſmall kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greateſt part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predeceſſors had been unjuſtly diſpoſeſſed, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

which he did for ſeveral years with various fortune. In 1598 he publiſhed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to his old friends the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chaſtiſed the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himſelf with wonderful attention and ſucceſs (aſſiſted in all his undertakings by his miniſter, the great Sully, to cultivate the happineſs of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of ſilk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-eſtabliſhed the tranquillity, and, in a great meaſure, ſecured the happineſs of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; for which purpoſe, it is ſaid, he had formed great ſchemes, and collected a formidable army; others ſay (for his intention does not clearly appear), that he deſigned to have formed Chriſtendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal paſſion for a favourite princeſs, whoſe huſband had carried her for protection into the Auſtrian dominions. Whatever may be in theſe conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was aſſaſſinated in his coach in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthuſiaſt, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. ſon to Henry IV. deſervedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richlieu, who put a period, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious eſtabliſhment of the proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's ſiſter, made ſome weak efforts by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion, in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that in theſe wars above a million of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were ſpent in carrying them on, and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thouſand churches, two thouſand monaſteries, and ten thouſand houſes, were burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, during their continuance.

Richlieu, by a maſterly train of politics, though himſelf was next to an enthuſiaſt for popery, ſupported the proteſtants of Germany, and Guſtavus Adolphus, againſt the houſe of Auſtria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conſpiracies which had been formed againſt him in France, he died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the adminiſtration of his mother Anne of Auſtria, by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament, for the moſt trifling cauſes, and upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing ſtar; ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a proteſtant had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell againſt the Spaniards, and to divide

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the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have more than once mentioned, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a ſurpriſing height.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. By his impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, with the dragooning the proteſtants that followed it, he obliged them to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and of the Auſtrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it was ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved by the Engliſh Tory miniſtry deſerting the cauſe, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years; for he died on the firſt of September 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great grandſon, Lewis XV. the late king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already ſeen in what manner he diſcharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent on the fifth of December 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to imagine that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconſiſtent ſcenes of fighting and treating with the ſeveral powers of Europe, which are to be found in their reſpective hiſtories. Among the firſt acts of the late king's government, was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Staniſlaus on the throne of Poland. In this

he failed through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorrain, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain; in the management of which the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. As to the war, which was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it, ſo humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

The preſent king, Lewis XVI. ſucceeded his grandfather, Lewis XV, on the 10th of May 1774. Several regulations have taken place, ſince his acceſſion, highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation, particularly the ſuppreſſion of the Muſquetaires, and ſome other corps, which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal perſon than any real military ſervice, were ſupported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the ſtate. But one of the moſt remarkable circumſtances which attended the preſent reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a proteſtant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, throughout every department in the revenue. When hoſtilities commenced between France and Great Britain, in conſequence of the aſſiſtance afforded by the former to the revolted Britiſh colonies, in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his œconomy, improvements, and reformation that were introduced into the management of the finances. In conſequence of this national œconomy, the navy of France has alſo been raiſed to ſo great a height, as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in conſequence of the repreſentations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unneceſſary offices in the houſehold of the king and queen were aboliſhed; and ſundry other important regulations adopted, for the eaſe of the ſubject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. He changed the exceſs of diſburſements at leaſt one million ſterling, of the year 1776, into an exceſs of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000l. But the meaſures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the intereſted, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have poſſeſſed ſufficient firmneſs of mind to ſupport an upright and able miniſter. He was therefore diſplaced, and is ſaid to have been particularly oppoſed by the queen's party. His removal, however pernicious to France, is probably a favourable circumſtance for Great Britain, as national œconomy, and wiſe counſels, muſt naturally render the former a more dangerous enemy to the latter.

Lewis XVI. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1754, ſucceeded his grandfather Lewis XV. in 1774, married, 1770, to Maria Antonietta, ſiſter of the emperor of Germany, born in 1755. Their iſſue are Madame Maria Thereſa Charlotte, born on the 19th of December 1778; and Lewis-Joſeph-Xavier-Francis, dauphin of France, born October 22, 1781.

His majeſty's brothers and ſiſters are,

1. L. Stan. Xavier, count de Provence, born 1755.
2. Charles Philip, count d'Artois, born 1757.
3. Maria Adelaide Clotilda Xaveria, born 1759.
4. Elizabeth Philippa Maria Helena, born 1764.

Iſſue of Lewis XV. now living, are,

1. Maria Adelaide, ducheſs of Lorrain and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria Louiſa Marie Thereſa, born 1733.
3. Sophia Philippina Elizabeth Juſtinia, born 1734.
4. Louiſa Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelites, and took the veil in 1770.

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# NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low-Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany.

## EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 360 | between | 49 and 54 | North lat. |
| Breadth 260 | | 2 and 7 | Eaſt lon. |

They are bounded by the German ſea on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the Britiſh channel, Weſt.

I ſhall, for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: firſt, the *Northern* which contains the ſeven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of HOLLAND: ſecondly, the *Southern*, containing the Auſtrian, and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

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|---|---|---|---|
| Length 150 | between | 51 and 54 | North lat. |
| Breadth nearly the ſame. | | 2 and 7 | Eaſt lon. |

The following is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of their geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands.

| Countries Name. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| United Provinces. | | | | |
| Overyſſel | 1,900 | 66 | 50 | Deventer |
| Holland | 1,800 | 84 | 52 | AMSTERDAM |
| Gelderland | 986 | 50 | 40 | Nimeguen |
| Frieſland | 810 | 44 | 34 | Leuwarden |
| Zutphen | 644 | 37 | 33 | Zutphen |
| Groningen | 540 | 45 | 37 | Groningen |
| Utrecht | 450 | 41 | 22 | Utrecht |
| Zealand | 303 | 29 | 24 | Middleburg |
| Texel and other iſlands | 113 | | | |
| Total— | 7,546 | | | |

AIR,

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] These provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles, upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed and ſtill ſupport with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation, but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a deſirable country to live in, eſpecially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor riſing grounds, no plantations, purling ſtreams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country ſerve as high-roads, are in the ſummer months no better than offenſive ſtagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt, are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The quantity of grain produced here is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but by draining their bogs and marſhes they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of the beſt butter and cheeſe in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber uſed there, and indeed moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than in any other nation in Europe. It is ſaid there are ſome wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. The river-fiſh is much the ſame as ours, but their ſea-fiſh is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fiſhing in deeper water. No herrings viſit their coaſts; but they have many excellent oyſter-beds about the iſlands of the Texel, producing very large and well-taſted oyſters. Notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniencies, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and commodities of life, and upon as eaſy terms (except to travellers and ſtrangers) as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPU-

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; beſides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands *. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for ſo the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains with which it is every where interſected, muſt be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheeſe, are produced by a conſtant attention to laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the ſea by their herring-fiſheries; for they diſpoſe of moſt of their valuable fiſhes to the Engliſh, and other nations, for the ſake of gain. The air and temperature of the climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irafcible, eſpecially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldneſs, with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; for in all other reſpects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects. Their attention to the conſtitution and independency of their country is owing to the ſame principle; for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themſelves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their intereſt at ſtake; witneſs their ſea wars with England and France. Their boors, though ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and an ill-mannered ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit, and affection for each other. The tradeſmen in general are reckoned honeſt in their dealings, and very ſparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are ſo unſociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality. The Dutch have alſo been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing in a great meaſure to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general, all appetites and paſſions ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in moſt other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions ſeem no natives of this country; and

* Monſ. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of Holland at 2,500,000, but Mr Templeman eſtimates them only at 2,000,000, which in proportion to the populouſneſs of England, in more than ſix to one, conſidering the extent of the country. Holland is alſo reckoned to have as many ſouls as the other ſix provinces, which if true the people of the ſeven provinces with their appendages muſt be very numerous.

love

love itſelf is little better than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to ſpend leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expence ſhould equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think at leaſt they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it uſed to diſcredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewiſe practiſed by many of their faſhionable ladies, and ſome of them diſcover more propenſity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of thoſe inhabitants, whoſe lot, if not riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a world of taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country does experience, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages, while at the ſame time they brought under their ſubjection and command the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inacceſſible. From that frugality and perſeverance by which they have been ſo much characteriſed, they were enabled, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality being now leſs univerſal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of Engliſh and French dreſſing and living; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeemed to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking-booths, ſkittle and other grounds, and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the

the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

DRESS.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongſt the ſea-faring people.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Preſbyterian and Calviniſm; none but Preſbyterians are admitted into any office or poſt in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the papiſts and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be conſidered as a ſtriking inſtance of the benefits ariſing to a nation from univerſal toleration. As every man is allowed to worſhip God according to the dictates of his own conſcience, perſons of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in the greateſt harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reaſon to complain of being oppreſſed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate, with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and enquiry.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemelin zyn uzwen naam zworde geheylight: uzw'koningkryk kome: uzwe wille geſchiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden ende vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ende en laat ons neit in verſoer kingemaer vertoſt on van der hoeſen.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand at the head almoſt of learning itſelf, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magiſtrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koſter in 1440; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that before principles of univerſal toleration prevailed, it had almoſt proved fatal to the government; witneſs the violent diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman ſtand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is poſſeſſed of ſome poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 publiſhed poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly becauſe their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications

tions are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The univerſity of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, beſides a number of printed books, has two thouſand oriental manuſcripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large ſphere adapted to the Copernican ſyſtem, and moving by clock work. Here is alſo a phyſic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The univerſity of Utrecht, in the province of the ſame name, was changed from a ſchool into an univerſity, in 1 3?; but it has not all the privileges of the other univerſities, being entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The phyſic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the ſtudents, on the eaſt ſide of the city juſt without the gate, is a beautiful mall, conſiſting of ſeven ſtraight walks, two thouſand paces in length, regularly planted with limes: but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from moſt countries in Europe, at theſe ſeminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expences, or ſo much as quitting his night gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here. The force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited at theſe univerſities: for frugality in expence, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in all things, being the characterics of the natives, ſtrangers, who continue among them, ſoon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the ſtudents live as they pleaſe, and ſtudy as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the aſſiduity and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their ſtudies. No oaths are impoſed, nor any religious teſts; ſo that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here, with as little ſcruple as proteſtants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICAL.] The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be ſeventeen ells in thickneſs; mounds, and canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are ſtupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as the effigies of a peaſant of Ruſſia, who ſwallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after it was cut out of his ſtomach: but the truth of this ſeems to be doubtful. A ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and the tendons of the human body curiouſly ſet up, by profeſſor Stalpert Vander Weil.

CITIES

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniencies for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that is every where obſerved within doors. This city, however, labours under two great diſadvantages: bad air, and the want of freſh wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of Government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the reſort of foreign ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all diſtinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleaſure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their univerſities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workſhop where Peter the Great of Muſcovy, in perſon, ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is ſubject to Pruſſia, and the capital city Gelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING. The uſual way of paſſing from town to town is by covered boats called treckſcuits, which are dragged along the canals by horſes, on a ſlow uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling, though to ſtrangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of theſe canals, an extenſive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a ſmall expence into various parts of Germany, and the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. A treckſcuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the firſt for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, ſmoke, eat, drink, or converſe with people of various nations, dreſſes, and languages. Near Amſterdam and other large cities, a traveller is aſtoniſhed when he beholds the effects of an extenſive and flouriſhing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat country-houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure-grounds intermixed with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amuſement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather ſpend much of their time in theſe little temples, ſmoking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear complaiſant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this, they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and above all, by the water-carriage, which,

which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The Eaſt India company have had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and till the late war with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendor than the ſtadtholder; and ſome of the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother-country. They have other ſettlements in India, but none more pleaſant, healthful, or uſeful, than that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlements in India; ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberleſs branches of trade; ſuch as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delft-ware, finely refined ſalt; their oil-mills, and ſtarch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, either for ſhipping or houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing; the great quantity of coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries, are in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants. Their commerce hath greatly ſuffered ſince the rupture with England.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, having divided forty per cent. and ſometimes ſixty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors on an average, one year with another, divided ſomewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch Weſt India company, the ſame year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amſterdam is thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is ſaid by Sir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomewhat more than the current caſh is, in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes, that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix (though others ſay only to thirty) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces ſubſiſt in a common confederacy, yet

yet each province has an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others: this government is called the *ſtates* of that province; and the delegates from them form the *ſtates general*, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy is veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two, or more delegates, yet ſuch province has no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution can have the force of a law, it muſt be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

The *council of ſtate* conſiſts likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces; but its conſtitution is different from that of the ſtates-general: it is compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Gelderland ſends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Frieſland, one; Overyſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs is to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the ſtates general. The ſtates of the provinces are ſtyled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but thoſe of Holland, "Noble and Moſt Mighty Lords," and the ſtates-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords the States General of the United Netherlands;" or, "Their High Mightineſſes." Subordinate to theſe two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do either in chuſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magiſtracy is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who are choſen for life; and every vacancy among them is filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elects the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, becauſe, without a knowledge of them, it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of the United Provinces, from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the ſtadtholderſhip was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſedes the conſtitution already deſcribed. The ſtadtholder is preſident of the ſtates of every province; and ſuch is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, though he has no voice in it; in ſhort, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than ſome kings; for beſides the influence and revenue he derives from the ſtadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, ſon of the late ſtadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland is a republic, yet its government is far from being of the popular kind; nor do the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at firſt view be apprehended. It is, indeed, rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people are not ſuffered to have the leaſt ſhare in any part of the government, not even in the

choice of the deputies. It may alſo be obſerved, that very few perſons in this ſtate dare ſpeak their real ſentiments freely; and they are generally educated in principles ſo extremely cautious, that they cannot relinquiſh them when they enter more into public life.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Thoſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; ſo that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces is ſaid to contribute toward the public expence:

| | |
|---|---|
| Of every million of ducats the Province of Holland contributes | 420,000 |
| Zealand | 130,000 |
| Frieſland | 170,000 |
| Utrecht | 85,000 |
| Groningen | 75,000 |
| Gelderland | 70,000 |
| Overyſſel | 50,000 |

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the Province of Holland, the city of Amſterdam furniſhes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandiſe are exceedingly low. Holland, before the breach with England, was in a very flouriſhing condition, and, at this very time, they lend large ſums to moſt of the powers in Europe. The immenſe ſums in the Britiſh funds have given reaſon for ſome people to imagine that Holland labours under heavy debts; but the chief reaſon is, the ſtates only pay two and a half per cent. intereſt for money.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace, commonly amount to about forty-thouſand: twenty-five thouſand of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Scots and Swiſs; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtad-holder, under whom is the field-marſhal general. The marine force of the United Provinces uſed to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increaſe it; and they have great reſources for that purpoſe. According to the laſt accounts, their navy conſiſts of one ſhip of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, beſides veſſels of inferior force. But they have many ſhips upon the ſtocks, and their fleet will probably be much augmented, and in future be kept in better order.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the moſt powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the firſt for Papiſts, and the ſecond branch for Proteſtants. This branch have a houſe at Utrecht, where they tranſact their buſineſs. The no-

bles of Holland, if they propoſe a ſon to be a knight, enter his name in the regiſter, and pay a large ſum of money to the uſe of the poor maintained by the order, and the candidate ſucceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's ſide. The enſign is a croſs pattie, enamelled white, ſurmounted with another, black; above the croſs is a ball twiſted, white and black. It is worn pendent to a broad black watered riband, which is worn about the neck. The ſame croſs is embroidered on the left breaſt of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, Or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlaſs, and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auſtrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain General and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces, was born in 1748, married in 1767 the princeſs Frederica of Pruſſia, born 1751. Their children are, Frederica Louiſa, born 1770—William Frederic, Hereditary Prince, born 1772—William George, born 1774.—The Stadtholder hath one ſiſter, Wilhelmina Carolina, born 1743, and married to the prince of Naſſau Wielburgh.

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# AUSTRIAN and FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 200 | between | 49 and 52 | North latitude. |
| Breadth 200 | | 2 and 7 | Eaſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh ſea, Weſt.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

### 1. Province of BRABANT.

| Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 Dutch Brabant | Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen op-Zoom | N. | 1374 |
| | Grave, N. E. | | |
| | Lillo, Steenbergen | N. W. | |
| 2. Auſtrian Brabant | Bruſſels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6. min. N. lat. 50-50. | | 1892 |
| | Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen | in the middle. | |

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

| Subdiviſions. | | Chief Towns. | | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief Towns | — | Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N lat. 50-37. ſub. to Auſtria. | | 312 |
| | | Maeſtricht | ſu. to the Dutch. | 300 |
| | | Dalem | | |
| | | Fauquemont, or Valkenburgh | | |

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Auſtrian Luxemburg | — | Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45. | | 240 |
| French Luxemburg | — | Thionville | S. E. | 292 |
| | | Montmedy | | |

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Chief Towns | — | Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe, E. lon. 4-50 N. lat. 50-30. | 425 |
| | | Charleroy on the Sambre. | |

7. Province of HAINAULT.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Auſtrian Hainault | — | Mons, E. lon. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30. | in the middle | 640 |
| | | Aeth | | |
| | | Enguien | | |
| French Hainault | — | Valenciennes | S. W. | 800 |
| | | Bouchain | | |
| | | Conde | | |
| | | Landrecy | | |

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject to France | — | Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15. | 150 |
| | | Crevecour, S. of Cambray. | |

9. Province of ARTOIS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject to France | — | Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20. | 900 |
| | | St. Omer, E. of Boulogne | |
| | | Aire, S. of St. Omer | |
| | | S. Venant, E. of Aire | |
| | | Bethune, S. E. of Aire | |
| | | Terouen, S. of St. Omer | |

10. Province of FLANDERS.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dutch Flanders. | — | Sluys, N. | | 280 |
| | | Axel, N. | | |
| | | Hulſt, N. | | |
| | | Sas van Ghent, N. | | |
| Auſtrian Flanders | — | Ghent, on the Scheld, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51. | | 1900 |
| | | Bruges | N. W. near the ſea. | |
| | | Oſtend | | |
| | | Newport | | |
| | | Oudenard on the Scheld. | | |
| | | Courtray | on the Lis | |
| | | Dixmude | | |
| | | Ypres, N. of Liſle | | |
| | | Tournay on the Scheld | | |
| | | Menin on the Lis | | |

| Subdivisions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| French Flanders | — | Liſle, W. of Tournay<br>Dunkirk, on the coaſt E. of Calais<br>Douay, W. of Arras<br>Mardike, W. of Dunkirk<br>St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes<br>Gravelin, E. of Calais. | 760 |

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in winter and ſummer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn bear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleaſantneſs of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it. Brabant, and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of little hills and vallies, woods, incloſed grounds, and champain fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburgh, and Limburg, as are ſome marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of foſſile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Auſtrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honeſt people; but their manners are ſomewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight deſperately in defence of their country; at preſent they make no great figure. The Auſtrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the peaſants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both theſe particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dreſs like the Dutch boors, and their language is the ſame; but the better ſort of the people ſpeak French, and dreſs in the ſame taſte.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman Catholic; but Proteſtants, and other ſects, are not moleſted.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are Cambray, Malines or Mechlin: the biſhopricks, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The ſociety of Jeſuits formerly produced the moſt learned men in the Auſtrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable ſettlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant hiſtorian and poet. The Flemiſh painters and ſculptors have great merit, and form a ſchool by themſelves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be ſufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly thoſe of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engroſſed tapeſtry weaving to themſelves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The firſt was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this univerſity has the privilege of preſenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in theſe provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are alſo found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, ſeen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, ſome labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed ſeveral large volumes publiſhed by different authors, but in times when the Auſtrian Netherlands were far more flouriſhing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner void. Bruges, formerly ſo noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable place. Oſtend is a tolerably convenient harbour for traders, and ſoon after the late rupture between Great Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781 it was viſited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchiſes, and the free exerciſe of the proteſtant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a ſtrong garriſon town. The ſame may be ſaid of Charleroy and Namur.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, inſtead of its flouriſhing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Bruſſels retains ſomewhat of its ancient manufactures; and being the reſidence of the governor or viceroy of the Auſtrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread lace-ſhop, with the houſes of ſome bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels, loaded with ſtone, in the mouth of the Scheldt: thus ſhutting up the entrance of that river to ſhips of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty, but they foreſaw that the proſperity of their own commerce was at ſtake.

It may be obſerved here, that every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle or *chateau*; and that there are more ſtrong towns in the Netherlands than in all the reſt of Europe; but ſince the decline of their trade, by the rise of

of the Engliſh and Dutch, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. A ſtranger may dine in Bruſſels, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, for leſs than a ſhilling Engliſh. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable, and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad cauſeway, and run for ſome miles in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings. At Caſſel, in the French Netherlands, may be ſeen thirty-two towns, itſelf being on a hill.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtanding the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that ſpecies called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Auſtrian Netherlands are ſtill conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, is the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributes its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſends an envoy to the diet, but is not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, was his ſerene highneſs prince Charles of Lorrain, brother to the late, and uncle to the preſent emperor. The face of an aſſembly, or parliament, for each province, is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Bruſſels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor ſeldom or never finds any reſiſtance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, ſubject to the regent: and cauſes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] Theſe riſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms; but ſo much is the trade of the Auſtrian Flanders now reduced, that they are ſaid not to defray the expence of their government; but by the late reduction of the garriſons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a conſiderable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garriſons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Auſtrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of thoſe garriſons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miſerably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at leaſt 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more. But the preſent emperor hath demoliſhed the fortifications of moſt of the places, and rendered the garriſons uſeleſs.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, Or, a lion ſable, langued gules.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was called Belgica Gallia by the Romans. About a century before the Chriſtian æra, the Battæ removed from Heſſe to the marſhy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maeſe. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great reſpect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military ſervices. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and afterwards being erected into ſmall governments, the heads

of which were deſpotic within their own dominions. Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandſons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the ſupreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At laſt they were ſwallowed up by the houſe of Burgundy, anno 1433. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon Philip, who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn, and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, in order to ſuppreſs them; and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were thought ſo deſpicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage were ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their ſea wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell and Charles II. they juſtly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars 1742 and 1756 hath been diſcuſſed in the hiſtory of that country, as alſo the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the Engliſh in the year 1780. As it was urged, that they refuſed to fulfil the treaties which ſubſiſted between them and Great Britain, ſo all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever exiſted. By the war, their trade ſuffered conſiderably, but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, is the only place not reſtored to them by the late peace. The conſequence of their diſunion with England, may however prove, in the end, injurious, if not fatal to them. They have lately ſought for a cloſer alliance with the court of Verſailles; and through the influence of a conſiderable party among them in the French intereſt, prefer their union and friendſhip, to that of their old allies, friends, and protectors. Which alliance will be moſt for their advantage, and conduce moſt to their proſperity

proſperity and exiſtence, as HIGH AND MIGHTY STATES, time will diſcover.

Probably, to their ſeparation from Great Britain may be attributed the preſent differences between the States General and the emperor of Germany. The demands made upon them, and the late violation of treaties ſubſiſting between them and his anceſtors, by which he himſelf is conſidered as bound, might not otherwiſe have been heard of. The emperor indeed pleads on his part, that, "By the non-performance and the violation of the treaties which the Dutch practiſed on all occaſions apparently favourable to them, the ſhutting of the Scheldt has long been a ſubmiſſion not obligatory on the Auſtrian Low Countries; and the general face of the affairs of Europe is beſides ſo different now from what it was at the concluſion of the treaty of Munſter, that it is manifeſt the ſtipulation of that treaty which regards the Scheldt is really at preſent no object. That notwithſtanding this, he was diſpoſed to accommodate matters amicably with the Republic, even to the ſacrifice of the moſt lawful and moſt important claims; but the more his Majeſty teſtified his readineſs for this purpoſe, the leſs he has found on the part of the Republic. They have, on the contrary, endeavoured to raiſe all ſorts of impediments to the ſucceſs of the negociation, and for that end have perſiſted in ſuſtaining and preſerving a claim to which, on account of ſo many contraventions to treaties, they can have no legitimate right. To prevent the injuries which the States-General had in view to eſtabliſh thereby, contrary to the inconteſtable rights of his Imperial Majeſty, and to leave no doubt of his unalterable reſolution to adhere to the propoſitions contained in the ultimatum, his Majeſty could not forbear determining to ſend to ſea, from Antwerp, a ſhip under his flag, after having declared long enough before in what manner he ſhould conſider all violent oppoſition that might be made to the free paſſage of the ſaid ſhip."

The ſhip was ſtopped in its paſſage, as was another ordered to ſail from Oſtend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to diſmiſs the veſſels if the Captains would engage to return to their reſpective places, and not continue their voyage on the river, which they refuſed to do. This the emperor calls inſulting his flag, and hath declared to all foreign courts, he cannot look on this fact but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the Republic." In anſwer to their conduct in ſtopping the Imperial ſhips, which the emperor ſtyles an inſult to his flag, and by which he declares them to have begun hoſtilities, the Dutch Miniſters at Bruſſels, in a paper delivered to that court, proteſt, "That as their ſole aim was to ſupport their uncontrovertible right, they cannot be ſuſpected of any hoſtile aggreſſion, which is the leſs to be laid to their charge, as they poſitively declared not to ſtand any ways anſwerable for the conſequences that may enſue from the particular conſtruction which his Imperial Majeſty may be pleaſed to put upon the affair. The Republic, far from being conſidered in the light of a power having acted offenſively, ſtill perſiſt in their peaceable diſpoſitions; but if unfortunately ſuch diſpoſitions can have no influence on the mind of his Imperial Majeſty, though the States ſtill preſerve ſome hopes to the contrary, the Republic will find itſelf in the diſagreeable neceſſity of having recourſe to ſuch means as the rights of nature and nations entitle them to; hoping that Divine Providence, and the applauding voice of the neutral powers, will aſſiſt in maintaining the Republic in the juſt defence of its deareſt rights."

Great preparations were made for immediate hoſtilities againſt the Dutch, and

and ſeveral hundreds of the Imperialiſts, with ſome field-pieces, advancing towards the counterſcarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the ſluices to be opened November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preſerve them from an attack. Both parties are exerting themſelves, if they ſhould be called forth to open a campaign in the next ſpring; but France and Pruſſia have interpoſed as negociators and mediators; and probably will ſucceed in bringing about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the Emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demoliſhing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt, and to the Eaſt Indies, advancing from one pretenſion to another, it is apparent, that the moſt ſolemn treaties will be no longer obſerved by ſome courts and ſtateſmen, than till they have an opportunity with ability to break them.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed the LOW COUNTRIES, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſovereign; and his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburgh; and would have ſtill poſſeſſed them, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the Engliſh in favour of the houſe of Auſtria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be ſeen in the preceding general table of diviſions.

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# GERMANY.

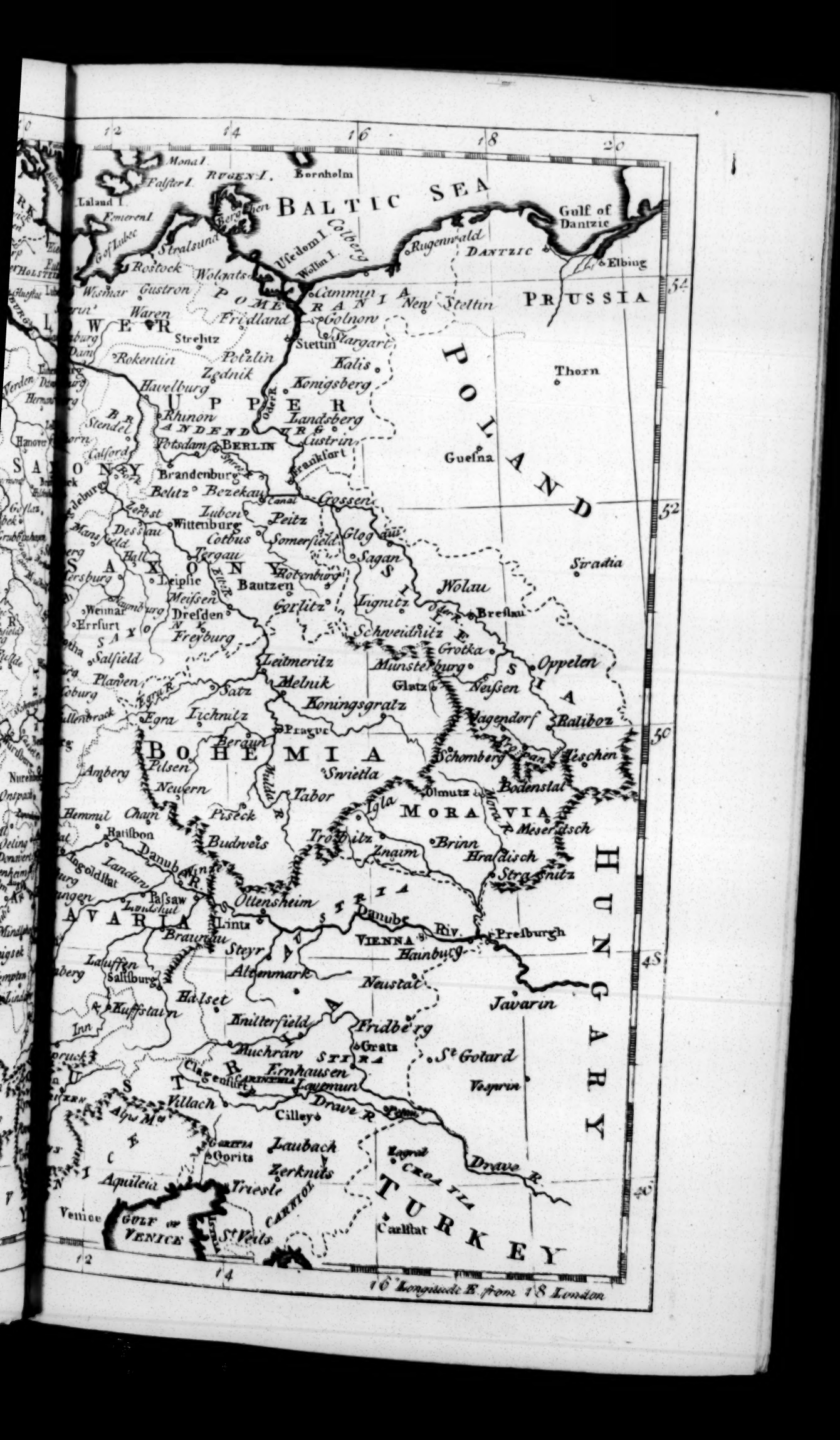
## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 600 | between | 5 and 19 Eaſt long. | 181,631. |
| Breadth | 520 | | 45 and 55 North lat. | |

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly ſo called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the Eaſt; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the Weſt, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, Moſelle, and the Maeſe.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The diviſions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I ſhall therefore adhere to thoſe that are moſt generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predeceſſor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the diviſion was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the


British Statute Miles.
20 60
GERMAN OCEAN
BRITISH OCEAN
DENMARK
Sylt
Nordstrand
Herligeland
Meldorp
Elbe R.
Wilster
Weser R.
Stade
Ameland
Schelling
Wieland
Jever
Embden
Jade
Texel I.
Sneek
VII UNITED
PROVINCES
Oldenburg
Bremen
Delmenhurst
Diepholt
Hoye
Alkmaar
Haerlem
Zuyder Zee
Brokzyl
Amsterdam
Leyden
Loo
Deventer
Osnaburg
Minden
Lippe
Hague
Utrecht
Zutphen
Munster
Rotterdam
Maes R.
Rulberg
Nimeguen
Cleves
Wesel
Hamm
Middleburg
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Lippe R.
Lippstat
Paderborn
Ostend
Ghent
Antwerp
Bruges
Bruselsels
Juliers
Arensburg
Fredeburg
Dusseldorf
Zons
Cologne
Aix
Liege
Maestricht
Liste
Tournay
Namur
Limburg
Valenciennes
Avesnes
Coblentz
Frankfort
Menz
Hanau
Weldentz
Luxemburg
Triers
Kirn
Worms
Heidelberg
Spire
Rheims
Thionville
Deuxponts
PARIS
Metz
Nancy
Strasburg
Baden
Stutgard
Zell
Hohenrolwell
Brisac
Friburg
Furstenburg
Schaffhausen
Basil
Zurich
Aarburg
Neufchatel
Solothurn
Zug
Lucern
Bern
Appenzel
Friburg
Altorf
SWITZERLAND
Lausane
Naters
GRISONS
Sion
Geneva
Rhone R.
Locarno
ITALY
Milan
GERMANY
and the
NETHERLANDS
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.


BALTIC SEA
Gulf of Danizic
DANTZIC
Elbing
PRUSSIA
POLAND
Thorn
Gueſna
Stettin
Stargard
Colnow
Cammin
Neuſtettin
Rugenwald
Colberg
Uſedom I.
Wollin I.
Stralsund
Rostock
Wismar
Gustrow
Waren
Friedland
Strehtz
Rokentin
Pölzlin
Zedenick
Havelburg
Rhinow
Potsdam
BERLIN
Brandenburg
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Lignitz
Schweidnitz
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Munsterburg
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Ratibor
Freyburg
Salfield
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Landshut
Ottensheim
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UPPER
LOWER
SILESIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
STYRIA
CARINTHIA
12
14
16
18
20
54
52
50
48
46
40
16° Longitude E. from 18 London

ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourſelves to nine of thoſe diviſions, as they now ſubſiſt.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the ſouth.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The northern circles — — | { | Upper Saxony<br>Lower Saxony<br>Weſtphalia |
| The circles in the middle — | { | Upper Rhine<br>Lower Rhine<br>Franconia |
| The ſouthern circles — — | { | Auſtria<br>Bavaria<br>Swabia |

## 1. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

| Diviſions | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pomerania, in the North. | Pruſ. Pomerania, N. E. | Stettin, E. l. 14-50 N. lat. 53-30. | 4820 |
| | Swed. Pomer. N. W. | Stralſund | 2991 |
| Brandenburg in the middle, ſub. to its own elector the K. of Pruſſia | Altmark, weſt<br>Middlemark<br>Newmark, eaſt | Stendel<br>Berlin, Potſdam<br>Franef, Cuſtrin. | 10910 |
| Saxony, Proper, in the ſouth, ſub. to its own elector. | Duchy of Saxony, N.<br>Luſatia marq. eaſt<br>Miſnia, marq. ſouth. | Wirtenberg<br>Bautzen, Gorlitz<br>Dref. E. lon. 13-36. N. lat. 51.<br>Meiſſen | 7500 |
| Thuringia, langr. weſt. — — | | Erfurt | 3620 |
| The duchies of — | Saxe Meinungen (Subject to their own dukes.) | Meinungen | |
| | Saxe Zeitz (Subject to their own dukes.) | Zeitz | |
| | Saxe Altenb S. E. (Subject to their own dukes.) | Altenburg | 240 |
| | Saxe Weimar, W. (Subject to their own dukes.) | Weimar | |
| | Saxe Gotha, W. (Subject to their own dukes.) | Gotha | 1500 |
| | Saxe Eiſn. S. W. (Subject to their own dukes.) | Eiſnach | |
| | Saxe Saalfeldt (Subject to their own dukes.) | Saalfeldt | |
| The counties of — | Schwartſ. W. (Subject to their reſpective counts.) | Schwartſburg | 96 |
| | Belchin. N. (Subject to their reſpective counts.) | Belchingen | |
| | Manſfel. N. (Subject to their reſpective counts.) | Manſfeldt. | |
| The duchies of — | Hall, mid. ſub. to Pruſ.<br>Saxe Naumburg, ſubject to its own duke | Hall<br>Naumburg. | 210 |
| The counties of — | Stolberg, north-weſt<br>Hohenſtein, weſt | Stolberg<br>Northhauſen | |
| Principality of — | Anhalt, north — | Deſſau, Zerbſt<br>Bernberg, Kothen | 966 |
| Biſhoprick of — | Saxe Hall, weſt | Hall | |
| | Voigtland, ſouth, ſubject to the elector of Saxony | Plawen | 696 |
| Duchy of — | Merſburg, middle, ſubject to the elector of Saxony | Merſburg | 336 |

2. LOWER

## 2. Lower SAXONY Circle.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Holstein D. north of the Elbe. | Holstein Proper, N. | Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the Duke of Holstein Gottorp. | Kiel, sub. to Holstein Gottorp. | 1850 |
| | Ditmarsh, west | | Meldorp, subject to Denm. | |
| | Stormaria, south | | Glucstat, subject to Denm. | |
| | Hamburg, a sovereign state | | Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city. | |
| | Wagerland, east | | Lubec, an imperial city. | |
| Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, subject to Hanover — | | | Lauenburg. | 450 |
| Subject to the duke of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle. | D. Brunswic Proper. | middle | Brun. E. L. 10-30. N. Lat. 52-30. | 860 |
| | D. Wolfenbuttle | | Wolfenbuttle | |
| | C. Rheinstein, south | | Rheinstein | |
| | C. Blackenburg | | Blackenburg | |
| Subject to the elector of Hanover. K. of G. Britain. | D. Calenberg | | Hanover | 8024 |
| | D. Grubenhagen | | Grubenhagen | |
| | Gottingen | | Gottingen | |
| Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover. | D. of Luneburg Proper | | Luneburg | |
| | D. Zell | | Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 52-52. | |
| Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north — | | | Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30. an imperial city. | 2040 |
| | | | Verden. | 693 |
| Mecklenburg D. | D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke | | Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54. | 4400 |
| | D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke | | Gustrow. | |
| Hildersheim bishoprick, in the middle, subject to its bishop — — | | | Hildersheim, an imperial city. | 1302 |
| Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia — — | | | Magdeburg, | 1535 |
| Halberstadt duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east | | | Halberstadt. | 450 |

## 3. WESTPHALIA Circle.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| North Division. | Embden, C. or East Fries. sub. to the king of Prussia | | Embden, an imperial city | 720 |
| | Oldenburg, C. | sub. to the K. of Den. | Oldenburg | |
| | Delmenhurst | | Delmenhurst | |
| | Hoye | subject to Hanover | Hoye | 624 |
| | Diepholt | | Diepholt | 220 |
| Western Division | Munster B. | sub. to its bishop | Munster, E lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52. | 3600 |
| | Paderborn B. | sub. to its bp. | Paderborn | 800 |
| | Osnaburg B. | sub. to its bp. | Osnaburg | 870 |
| | Lippe C. | sub. to its count | Lippe, Pyrmont, | 400 |
| | Minden D. | sub. to Pru. | Minden | 595 |
| | Ravensberg C. | | Ravensberg | 525 |
| | Westphalia D. | sub. to the elector of Cologn | Arensburg | 1444 |
| | Tecklenb. C. | sub. to their respective counts. | Teecklenburg | 840 |
| | Ritberg C. | | Ritberg | 120 |
| | Schawenb. C. | | Schawenburg | |

Middle

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Middle Diviſion. | Cleves D. ſub. to the king of Pruſſia | | Cleves E. lon. 5-36 N. lat. 51-40. | 630 |
| | Berg. D. | ſub. to the elector Palatine. | Duſſeldorf | |
| | Juliers D. | | Juliers, Aix | 1300 |
| | Mark C. ſubject to Pruſſia | | Ham | 980 |
| | Liege B. ſub. to its own bp. | | Liege, E. lon. 5-56 N. lat. 50-40 | 1942 |
| | | | Huy | |
| | Benth. C. ſub. to Hanover | | Bentheim | 418 |
| | Steinfort C. ſub. to its count | | Steinfort | 114 |

## 4. Upper RHINE Circle.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Heſſe | Heſſe Caſſel, landg. N. | | Caſſel, E. lon. 9-20 N. lat. 51-20. | 3500 |
| | Heſſe Marpurgh, landg. N. | | Marpurgh | |
| | Heſſe Darmſtadt, landg. | | Darmſtadt | 396 |

Each of the above ſubdiviſions are ſubject to their reſpective landgraves.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Heſſe Homberg | | Homberg | |
| | Heſſe Rhinefeldt | | Rhinefeldt | 180 |
| | Wonfield | | Wonfield | |
| Counties in the Wetteraw ſouth. | Naſſau Dillenburgh | Each county ſubject to its own count of the houſe of Naſſau. | Dillenburg | 1200 |
| | Naſſau Diets | | Diets | |
| | Naſſau Hadamar | | Hadamar | |
| | Naſſau Kerberg | | Kerberg | |
| | Naſſau Siegen | | Siegen | |
| | Naſſau Idſtein | | Idſtein | |
| | Naſſau Weilburg | | Weilburg | |
| | Naſſau Wiſbaden | | Wiſbaden | |
| | Naſſau Bielſteid | | Bielſteid | |
| | Naſſau Otweiler | | Otweiler | |
| | Naſſau Uſingen | | Uſingen | |
| Territory of Frankfort, a ſovereign ſtate | | | Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city. | 120 |
| County of Erpach, ſub. to its own count | | | Erpach eaſt | 230 |
| Biſhoprick of Spire, a ſovereign ſtate | | | Spire on the Rhine an imperial city. | 245 |
| Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, ſubject to the duke of Deuxponts | | | Deuxponts in the Palat. | 700 |
| County of Catzenelbogen, ſub. to Heſſe Caſſel | | | Catzenelbogen on the Lhon. | |
| Counties of | Waldec, ſub. to its own count | | Waldec | 368 |
| | Solms, ſub. to its own count | | Solms | |
| | Hanau, ſub. to Heſſe Caſſel | | Hanau | 432 |
| | Iſenburg, ſub. to its own C. | | Iſenburg | |
| | Sayn | | Sayn | |
| | Wied | | Wied | |
| | Witgenſtein | | Witgenſtein | |
| | Hatzfield | | Hatzfield | |
| | Weſterburg | | Weſterburg | |
| Abbey of Fulda, ſubject to its abbot | | — | Fulda | 621 |
| Hirſchfeld, —ſubject to Heſſe Caſſel | | — | Hirſchfeld | |

5. Lower

## 5. Lower RHINE Circle.

| Divisions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, sub. to the Elector Palatine. | | Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20. | 2618 |
| | | Philipsburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine. | |
| Archbishopricks and Electorates of | Cologn, Mentz, Triers — Subject to their respective electors. | Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50. | |
| | | Bonn, on the Rhine. | 1964 |
| | | Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenb. on the Maine. | 1405 |
| | | Triers, on the Moselle. | 1765 |
| Bishoprick of Worms, a sovereign state | | Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city. | 154 |
| Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke | | Simmeren. | |
| Counties of | Rhinegravestein | Rhinegravestein | |
| | Meurs, subject to Prussia | Meurs | |
| | Veldentz, subject to the Elector Palatine | Veldentz | |
| | Spanheim | Creutznach | |
| | Leyningen | Leyningen. | |

## 6. FRANCONIA Circle.

| Divisions. | | | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bishopricks of | Wurtsburg, W. | Subject to their resp. bishops. | Wurtsburg | 1645 |
| | Bamberg, N. | | Bamberg | 1700 |
| | Aichstat S. | | Aichstat | 513 |
| Marquisates of | Cullenback, north east | Sub. to their respective margraves. | Cullenback | 900 |
| | Anspach, S. | | Anspach | 1000 |

| Subdivisions. | | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Principality of Henneberg, N. | — | Henneberg | |
| Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke | | Coburg | 405 |
| Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke | | Hilburghausen | |
| Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent state | — — | Nuremberg, an imperial city. | 640 |
| Territory of the great-master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W. | — | Mergentheim. | 56 |
| Counties of | Reineck, W. | Reineck | |
| | Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar. | Bareith | 188 |
| | Papenheim, S. s. to its own C. | Papenheim | |
| | Wertheim, W. | Wertheim | |
| | Cassel, middle | Cassel | 120 |
| | Schwartzburg, subject to its own count | Schwartzburg middle | 96 |
| | Holach, S. W. | Holach. | 220 |

## 7. AUSTRIA Circle.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the House of Austria.

Arch-

| Divisions. | | Chief Towns. | | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Archduchy of Austria Proper | | Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints, Ens, west. | | 7160 |
| Duchies of | Stiria and Cilley, C. | Gratz, Cilley, S. E. | | 5000 |
| | Carinthia | Glagenfurt, Lavem. S. E. | | 3000 |
| | Carniola | Laubach, Zerknits, Triefte, St. Veits, S. E. | | 4570 |
| | Goritia | Gorits, S. E. | | |
| County of Tyrol | — | Inſpruck | S. W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland. | 3900 |
| Biſhopricks of | Brixen | Brixen | | 1300 |
| | Trent | Trent | | 210 |

## 8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

| Subdiviſions. | | Chief Towns. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube. | Subject to the elector palatine as ſucceſſor to the late elector of Bavaria. | Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landſhut, Ingoldſtat, N. W. Donawert [Ratiſ. N. an imperial city. Amberg [Sultzbach]. N. of the Danube. | | 8500 |
| Palatinate of Bavaria. | | | | |
| Freſſingen, ſubject to its biſhop | | Freſſingen | — | 240 |
| Biſhoprick of Paſſau, ſubject to its own biſhop, | | Paſſau, E. on the Danube. | | 240 |
| Duchy of Neuberg, ſubject to the Elector Palatine | — | Neuberg, W. on the Danube. | | 450 |
| Archbiſhoprick of Saltzburg, ſubject to its own archbiſhop | — | Saltzburg, S. E. Hallen. | | 2540 |

## 9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Duchy of Wurtemberg, ſubject to the duke of Wurtemberg Stutgard. | | Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron. | On or near the Neckar. | 3564 |
| Marquiſates of | Baden Baden | ſub. to their own reſpective marg. | Baden | On or near the Rhine. 258 |
| | Baden Durlach | | Baden-Durlach | On or near the Rhine. 490 |
| Biſhoprick of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop | — | Augſburg, an imperial city, Hochſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube. | | 765 |
| Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate | | Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city. | | 280 |
| Biſhoprick of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop under the Houſe of Auſtria | | Conſtance on the lake of Conſtance | | 60 |
| Principalities of | Mindelheim | Subject to their reſpective princes. | Mindelh. S. of Augſ. | 216 |
| | Furſtenberg | | Furſtenberg, S. | 788 |
| | Hohenzollern | | Hohenzollern, S. | 150 |
| Counties of | Oeting | Oeting, east | | 580 |
| | Konigſeck | Konigſeck, ſouth east. | | |
| | Hohenrichburg | Gemund, north. | | 379 |
| Baronies of | Waldburg | Waldburg, ſouth east. | | |
| | Limpurg | Limpurg, north. | | 120 |

| Subdiviſions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Abbies of | Kempten | Kempten, on the Iller. | |
| | Buchaw | Buchaw, S. of the Danube. | |
| | Lindaw | Lindaw, on the lake of Conſtance, imperial cities. | |
| Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates | | Nordlingen, N. of the Danube. | |
| | | Memmingen, eaſt. | |
| | | Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more. | |
| Subject to the houſe of Auſtria. | Black Foreſt, N. W. Rhinefield C. | Rhinefield and Lauffenb. | 480 |
| | Marquiſate of Burgaw. | Burgaw, eaſt. | 650 |
| | Territory of Briſgaw, on the Rhine | Friburg and Briſac. | 380 |

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as I have already mentioned: and the word Germany is of itſelf but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the moſt probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, ſuch as Allemanni, Teutones; which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt ancient deſignation; and the Germans themſelves call their country Teutchland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation, north, eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, but according to the improvement of the ſoil, which has a vaſt effect on the climate. The moſt mild and ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. In the north it is ſharp; towards the ſouth it is more temperate.

The ſoil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and ſterile, though in others it is ſurpriſingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which muſt neceſſarily change the moſt barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The ſeaſons vary as much as the ſoil. In the ſouth and weſtern parts, they are more regular than thoſe that lie near the ſea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eaſtern blaſts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thoſe which ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The great paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reaſon why perhaps there are more woods and chaſes yet ſtanding in Germany than in moſt other countries. The Hercynian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chaſe or park adorned with pleaſure-houſes, and well-ſtocked with game, viz. deer,

deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants have them, as well as veniſon, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is ſo broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable.—The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe, are the Chiemſee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-ſee in the duchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides thoſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

MINERAL WATER AND BATHS.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of thoſe than all Europe beſides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and thoſe of Pyrmont. Thoſe of Aix la Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of thoſe, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty; and if we are to believe all they ſay, they cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwolbach, and Wildungen, are likewiſe reported to perform their wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages.

After all, many are of opinion, that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients. It is the intereſt of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite inſtitutions for the diverſion of the public. The neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and conveniency of the places of public reſort are inconceivable; and though at firſt they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themſelves in a few years by the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world, many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt-mines, and ſalt-pits are found in Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphire,

agate, alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which to a ſtrong fancy repreſent different animals and ſometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furniſh coal-pits, and the *terra ſigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already deſcribed: but naturaliſts are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, what we may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and the Moſelle wines differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their fleſh, and the hams made of it are preferred by many, even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can maſter, eſpecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurpriſe artfully, and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of a torpid ſtate, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their horſes, oxen, and ſheep, are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing to the want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of ſinging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to ſpeak with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but lately the following eſtimate hath been formed of them.

| | |
|---|---|
| Moravia | 1,100,000 |
| Auſtrian Sileſia | 200,000 |
| High and Low Luſatia | 380,000 |
| Circle of Auſtria | 4,150,000 |
| Bavaria | 1,148,438 |
| Archbiſhoprick of Saltzburgh | 250,000 |
| Wurtemburgh | 565,850 |
| Baden | 200,000 |
| Augſburgh | 40,000 |
| Bamberg and Wurtſburgh | 400,000 |

Nuremberg

| | |
|---|---|
| Nuremberg | 70,000 |
| Juliers and Berg | 260,000 |
| Munſter | 130,000 |
| Oſnaburg | 116,664 |
| The Pruſſian Eſtates in the Circle of Weſtphalia | 550,000 |
| Naſſau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman | 74,699 |
| Oldenbourg | 79,071 |
| Mayence | 314,000 |
| Palatinate of Rhine | 289,614 |
| Heſſe Caſſel and Darmſtadt | 700,000 |
| Fulda | 7,000 |
| Frankfort on the Main | 42,600 |
| High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia | 1,326,041 |
| Swediſh Pomerania | 100,549 |
| Pruſſian Pomerania | 462,970 |
| Brandenburg | 1,007,232 |
| Gotha | 77,898 |
| Schwartzburgh, Magdeburg, and Mansfield | 271,461 |
| Halberſtadt and Hohenſtein | 130,761 |
| Hanover | 750,000 |
| Brunſwick | 166,340 |
| Holſtein | 300,000 |
| Mecklenburg | 220,000 |
| Mulhauſen | 13,000 |
| Hamburgh | 100,000 |
| | 17,166,868 |

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; the kingdom of Bohemia will be noticed in the proper place, and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all is now computed at twenty-one millions; and when the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally increaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and ſhape that are ſo bewitching in ſome other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which, in faſhion, are the ſame as in France and Englond; but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic, as may be ſeen in many prints publiſhed in books of travels: but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago: as to the peaſantry and labourers, they dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumſtances. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in the northern

nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather-beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which by uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumſtances of the common people are far preferable to thoſe of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. The Germans in general, are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in their field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both againſt the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars, the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewelry, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. The German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as thoſe of ſome other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high-ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a ſpecies of beings ſuperior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themſelves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxurioufly,

luxuriouſly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribands, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, ſervants ride before the ſledges with torches, and a gentleman ſtanding on the ſledge behind guides the horſe.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I ſhall confine myſelf to what is moſt neceſſary to be known. Before the Reformation introduced by Luther, the German biſhops were poſſeſſed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperor as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their ſuperſtition. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand for many years againſt the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the ſacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to the celebrated Engliſhman John Wickliff, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himſelf, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliff was ſeconded by John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe-conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance.

The Reformation introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, though it ſtruck at the chief abuſes in the church of Rome, was thought in ſome points (particularly that of conſubſtantiation, by which the real body of Chriſt, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is ſuppoſed to be taken in the ſacrament) to be imperfect. Calviniſm †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practiſed in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion profeſſed in the territories of the king of Pruſſia, the landgrave of Heſſe, and ſome other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go ſo far as to ſay, that the numbers of Proteſtants and Papiſts in the empire are now almoſt equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as alſo Bohemia, is over run with ſectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At preſent, the modes of worſhip and forms of church government are by the proteſtant German princes conſidered in a civil rather than a religious light. The proteſtant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popiſh, ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP-SEES.] Theſe are differently repreſented by authors; ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to diſpute the doctrines of the Romiſh church 1517, and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he ſettled at Geneva, in 1539, where he eſtabliſhed a new form of church diſcipline, which was ſoon after embraced by ſeveral nations and ſtates, who are now denominated Preſbyterians, and from their doctrinal articles, Calviniſts. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

archiepiſcopal ſee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbiſhopriek, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans; but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction:—Triers has three ſuffragans:—Cologne has four:—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburgh has nine, beſides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the Reformation, it has been found expedient, to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſeculariſe the following biſhopſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden, Lubec, and Oſnaburg, which laſt goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon. Such of thoſe ſees as were archbiſhopricks are now conſidered as duchies, and the biſhopricks as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother-tongue of all Germany; but varies ſo much in its dialect, that the people of one province ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noſter is as follows: *Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmel. Geheiliget werd dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel alſo auch auf erden. Unſer taglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unſer ſchuld, als wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Und führe uns nicht in verſuchung. Sondern erloſe uns von dem boſen. Den dein iſt das reich, und die krafft, und die herrlichkeit, en ewigheit.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES. } No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the proteſtant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almoſt every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curioſi*; the academy of ſciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, at Diuſburgh, at Gieſen, and at Hamburg. At Dreſden and Nuremberg are academies for painting; at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augſburg is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin ſociety at Jena. Of the public libraries the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipſic.

Many of the Germans have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning and ſcience. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heiſter, of anatomy and ſurgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Port, and Margraff, of chemiſtry. In aſtronomy, Kepler deſervedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the firſt writers on the law of nature and nations, and has alſo merit as an hiſtorian,

But

But at the end of the laſt century, and the beginning of the preſent, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious ſects, was ſo much involved in diſputes about ſyſtematical theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language alſo, and the ſtyle of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation, was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; and though they were not underſtood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of ſuperiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet diveſted themſelves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberleſs quotations from all ſorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true teſt of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantical, and were in conſequence diſregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the proſpects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philoſophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottſched, an author and profeſſor at Leipſic, who has been greatly honoured by the late king of Pruſſia, introduced a better taſte of writing, by publiſhing a German grammar, and by inſtituting a literary ſociety, for poliſhing and reſtoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the ſtudy of the *belles lettres*. We may conſider this as the epocha, from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language, upon learned ſubjects, and to free themſelves, in a conſiderable degree, from that verboſeneſs and pedantry by which they had been characterized. About this time ſeveral young men in the univerſity of Leipſic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publiſhing ſome periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of perſons of a literary taſte. Some of theſe gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high eſtimation.

The ſtyle of preaching among the German divines alſo now underwent a conſiderable change. They began to tranſlate the beſt Engliſh and French ſermons, particularly thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by theſe models: and Moſheim, Jeruſalem, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have publiſhed ſermons which would do credit to any country; though they ſtill retain too much of that prolixity, for which German divines and commentators have been ſo much cenſured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are ſtill too much diſtinguiſhed by vulgar language, abſurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reaſon and good ſenſe.

Some of the Engliſh periodical writings, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being tranſlated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the firſt and beſt was publiſhed at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late biſhop of Saliſbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Hamburg, and a conſiderable maſter of the German language. The late profeſſor Gellert, who is one of the moſt elegant of the German authors, and one of the moſt eſteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taſte. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inſpire ſentiments of mora-

lity and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verſe, his letters, and his moral romances, are ſo much read in German, that even many of the ladies have them almoſt by heart. His comedies are alſo very popular; though they are rather too ſentimental, and better adapted for the cloſet than for the ſtage.

Haller, the famous phyſician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronegh, Leſſing, Gleim, Gerſtenberger, Kleiſt, Klopſtock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Leſſing, Wieland, and Wieſe, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his ſatirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans; though ſome of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German cuſtoms, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleaſure by perſons of other nations. Geſner, whoſe Idylls and Death of Abel have been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, is known among us in a more favourable light.

In chemiſtry, and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conſpicuous: and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kaeſtner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philoſophical writings. Buſching is an excellent geographical writer; and Maſco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in hiſtorical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Moſt of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or elſe very dry and unintereſting; which perhaps is owing to education, to falſe delicacy, or to a certain taſte of knight-errantry, which is ſtill predominant among ſome of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Leſſing, are familiar with thoſe who are ſkilled in this branch of literature. In eccleſiaſtical, philoſophical, and literary hiſtory, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Moſheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous, in ſacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiſke, Erneſti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have publiſhed ſome of the beſt editions of Greek and Latin claſſics.

It is an unfavourable circumſtance for German literature, that the French language ſhould be ſo faſhionable in the German courts inſtead of the German, and that ſo many of their princes ſhould give it ſo decided a preference. Even the late king of Pruſſia ordered the Philoſophical Tranſactions of his royal ſociety at Berlin, from the beginning of its inſtitution, to be publiſhed in the French tongue: by which, ſome of the Germans think, his majeſty has caſt a very undeſerved reproach upon his native language.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves tolerably well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and metzotinto. Printing, if firſt invented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the firſt inventors of great guns; as alſo of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; Handel, Bach, and Heſſe, of whom Handel ſtands at the head; and it is acknowledged, that he arrived at the ſublime of muſic, but he had not the ſmalleſt idea between muſic and ſentimental expreſſion.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains. The reader therefore muſt be contented with the mention of the moſt capital places, and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance, into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a popiſh one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houſes, though neat without, are ill-furniſhed and ill-finiſhed within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-houſe is alſo a beautiful ſtructure: and the arſenal, which is handſomely built in the form of a ſquare, contains arms for 00,000 men. There are ſundry manufactures in Berlin, and ſeveral ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than 443 ſilk looms, 149 of half-ſilks, 2858 for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, eſtimating each rix-dollar at four ſhillings and ſix pence, amounts to 1,350,000l. This ſum is ſo moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can ſay little more of Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, than hath been already ſaid of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations, and, above all, its ſuburbs, are magnificent beyond all expreſſion; that it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe; and that it is the ſchool of Germany for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipſic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles diſtant from Dreſden, is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Pleiſſe, and the inhabitants are ſaid to amount to about 40,000. There are alſo large and well-built

ſuburbs,

ſuburbs, with handſome gardens. Between theſe ſuburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompaſſes the city. Mulberry-trees are alſo planted in the town-ditches; but the fortifications ſeem rather calculated for the uſe of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The ſtreets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with ſeven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houſes, and 192 manufactures of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipſic has long been diſtinguiſhed for the liberty of conſcience allowed here to perſons of different ſentiments in religious matters. Here is an univerſity, which is ſtill very conſiderable, with ſix churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the eſtabliſhed religion, one for the Calviniſts, and a chapel in the caſtle for thoſe of the Romiſh church. The univerſity-library conſiſts of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is alſo a library for the magiſtrates, which conſiſts of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuſcripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curioſities of art and nature. The Exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and ſixty market-towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchaſe to the ſaid elector, contain about fifty thouſand inhabitants, who have a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. I ſhall here juſt mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the ſeculariſed biſhoprick of Oſnaburgh, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburgh, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhoprick amounts to about 30,000l.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia, which principally centre at Breſlau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by ſome ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought in to the houſe of Auſtria above 500,000l. yearly.

Frankfort is ſituated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country along the Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhauſen. The former of theſe, being the largeſt, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thouſand houſes. The fortifications, which are both regular and ſolid, form a decagon, or figure, conſiſting of ten baſtions, faced with hewn ſtone; the ditches are deep, and filled with freſh water; and all the outworks are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the

the Romans, and is alſo a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly built of timber and plaiſter, and covered with ſlate; though there are ſome handſome private ſtructures, of a kind of red marble, that deſerve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compeſtel and Fronhof, the Trierſhof, the Cullenhof, the German-houſe, an auguſt edifice, ſituated near the bridge over the Maine, the Heſſe-Darmſtadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houſes of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal ſquares.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and, being the reſidence of the emperor, is ſuppoſed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent univerſity, a bank, which is in the management of her own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs, are computed at about three hundred thouſand; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of all the nations abroad.

After all that has been ſaid of this magnificent city, the moſt candid and ſenſible of thoſe who have viſited it, are far from being laviſh in its praiſe. The ſtreets, excepting thoſe in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty: the houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid by the houſe of Auſtria upon every commodity in its dominions, muſt always keep the manufacturing part of their ſubjects poor. His preſent imperial majeſty ſeems to be ſenſible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predeceſſors and their counſellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has deſcended from that haughtineſs of demeanour which rendered the imperial court ſo long diſagreeable, and even ridiculous, to the reſt of Europe. In general, the condition of the Auſtrian ſubjects has been greatly meliorated ſince his acceſſion to the imperial throne; great encouragement hath been given to the proteſtants, and many of the popiſh religious houſes, convents, &c. are ſuppreſſed by him.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. In deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, I anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelburgh holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats,

Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The Imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and above all, town-houſes in Germany, are very curious: they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg in Hartz foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave ſtands a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who were there ſwallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (beſides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummin, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribands, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon, and bullets, bombs and bomb-ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hogs briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the diſadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarſe woollen manufactures, and ſeveral other commodities, ſo cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe; linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his late Pruſſian majeſty, was, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the

the only commercial company in Germany; but no ſhips have been ſent out ſince the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majeſty laid on the company, has been the cauſe of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany very large and extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive: but even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or, in his abſence, of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of Imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after this, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility and deputies of cities enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239 the number of electors was reduced to ſeven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather by the mother's ſide, to the preſent emperor, the elector of Bavaria was choſen to that dignity, and died, as is ſuppoſed, heart-broken, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election; and the perſon, who in his life time is choſen king of the Romans, ſucceeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchiſements upon cities and towns; but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution; for George II. of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and alſo againſt the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all Chriſtian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the Imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

Firſt, The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbiſhop of Treves, who is high chancellor of the empire of France.

Third, The archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand ſewer, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts.

The elector of Saxony, who is the great marſhal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Pruſſia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great ſteward; and,

The

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the poſt of arch-treaſurer.

It is neceſſary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of thoſe members; and during the vacancy of the Imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have juriſdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the ſouthern circles.

The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three eccleſiaſtical electors already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltzburgh, the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wurtſburg, Straſburg, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beſide theſe, are many other eccleſiaſtical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute; and ſome of them very conſiderable, and all of them are choſen by their ſeveral chapters. The chief of the ſecular princes are the Landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwic, Wolfenbuttel, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau, Anhalt, Furſtenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates: thoſe which are Imperial, or compoſe a part of the diet, bear the Imperial eagle in their arms; thoſe which are Hanſe-towns, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body.

The Imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members. The Imperial council conſiſts of 50 judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuſes one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. This court is at preſent held at Wetzlar, but formerly reſided at Spire; and cauſes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria. As that family's power increaſed, the juriſdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at laſt, to the great diſguſt of the princes of the empire, it uſurped upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a certain number of aulic counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor in fact is maſter of the court. Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. Theſe directors are commonly as follow. For Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine the elector Palatine, or biſhop of Worms. For Franconia, the biſhop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wirtemburg, or biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbiſhop of Saltzburg; and for Auſtria, the archduke of Auſtria, his imperial majeſty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced; the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free

free quarter upon the eſtates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences: upon the whole, the conſtitution of the Germanic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. But however plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been ſaved by France. Lately, indeed, the houſe of Auſtria has met with a powerful oppoſition from the houſe of Brandenburg, in conſequence of the activity and abilities of the late king of Pruſſia. Before I cloſe this head, it may be neceſſary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German hiſtory, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, through the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guarantied by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been again and again oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they entirely without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief; whereas in France the lives and fortunes of the ſubject are entirely at the diſpoſal of the grand monarch. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy: for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vaſſals and dependants. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter alſo, in ſome parts, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

Revenues.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as ſuch, hath an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 l. ſterling in Germany and Italy; a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. The father of the late king of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his ſon, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt that he left 7,000,000l. ſterling in his coffers; and ſome have thought that Sileſia alone brings above half a million ſterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and conſequently the low price of proviſions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that ſome princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot ſpeak with any tolerable preciſion on

a ſubject of ſuch variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends ſo many independent ſtates.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid in carrying them on, to the ancient German conſtitutions, the whole management being engroſſed by the head of the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or regiſter, which, among other letters, contains the aſſeſſments of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments, however, are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that upon a moderate computation the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,00 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500, in all 453,500; of thoſe the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

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|---|---|
| The elector of Mentz may maintain | 6000 |
| The elector of Triers | 6000 |
| The elector of Cologne | 6000 |
| The biſhop of Munſter | 8000 |
| The biſhop of Liege | 8000 |
| The archbiſhop of Saltzburg | 8000 |
| The biſhop of Wurtzburg | 2000 |
| The biſhop of Bamberg | 5000 |
| The biſhop of Paderborn | 3000 |
| The biſhop of Oſnaburg | 2500 |
| The abbot of Fulda | 6000 |
| The other biſhoprics of the empire | 6000 |
| The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire | 8000 |
| Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes | 74500 |
| The emperor, for Hungary | 30000 |
| for Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia | 30000 |
| for Auſtria, and other dominions | 30000 |
| The king of Pruſſia | 40000 |
| The elector of Saxony | 25000 |
| The elector Palatine | 15000 |
| The duke of Wirtemburg | 15000 |
| Tha landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel | 15000 |
| The prince of Baden | 10000 |
| The elector of Hanover | 30000 |
| The duke of Holſtein | 12000 |
| The duke of Mecklenburg | 15000 |
| The prince of Anhalt | 6000 |
| The prince of Lawenburg | 6000 |
| The elector of Bavaria | 30000 |
| The dukes of Saxony | 10000 |
| The prince of Naſſau | 10000 |
| The other princes and imperial towns | 50000 |
| The ſecular princes | 379000 |
| The eccleſiaſtical princes | 74500 |
| | 453500 |

By

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the moſt powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different intereſts purſued by the ſeveral princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little conſequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The army of the preſent emperor was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thouſand.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, at the head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Tereſa.

The order of the *Golden Fleece* was inſtituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is ſuppoſed that he choſe the badge, it being the chief of the ſtaple manufactures of his country. It at firſt conſiſted of thirty knights, including the ſovereign, who were of the firſt families in the Low Countries, and it ſtill continues to be claſſed with the moſt illuſtrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At preſent there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is ſovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all muſt prove their noble deſcent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*" The *Teutonic Order* owed its origin to ſome religious Germans in Jeruſalem during the cruſades, who aſſumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hoſpital of our Lady of the Germans at Jeruſalem." Conrade duke of Swabia invited them into Pruſſia about the year 1230, ſoon after they conquered Pruſſia for themſelves, and became one of the moſt powerful orders in Europe. By the order dividing againſt itſelf, they afterwards loſt their power and poſſeſſions; and Albert marquis of Brandenburgh, grand-maſter of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-maſterſhip, ſubdued Pruſſia, and expelled all the papiſts who followed not his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the proteſtant branch, who have a houſe at Utrecht, hath been noticed in our account of orders in the Netherlands—that for papiſts, hath a houſe at Mergenheim in Germany, and the members muſt take the

oath of celibacy. The enſign worn by this branch is worn round the neck pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the inſtitution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is ſovereign thereof, and it is generally beſtowed on general officers. In the year 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederick III. elector of Brandenburgh, on terminating their diſputes, eſtabliſhed the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and ſecurity hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold; on one ſide are the names of the two princes with this device, *Amité ſincere*; on the other ſide are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm branches croſſed, with this motto, *Unis pour jamais*.

John George, duke of Saxe Weiſſenfels, inſtituted the "*Order of the Noble Paſſion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the ſovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the ſovereign. In the year 1709, Louiſa Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe Metſburg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," firſt inſtituted in 1652, by her father the duke of Wirtemburgh. A princeſs of that houſe alone can be ſovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amuſements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs patée black: above the croſs patée, another croſs compoſed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black riband edged with white, and on the riband theſe words, *Memento mori*, worn at the breaſt.

The great order of Wirtemburgh, is that "*of the Chace*," inſtituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left ſide of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered, of the ſame figure as the badge, in the middle a green circle with the motto "*Amicitiæ Virtutiſque Fœdus*." The feſtival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of ſportſmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," firſt inſtituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or penſions. The archbiſhop of Saltzburgh in 1701, inſtituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the ſee he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. As the archbiſhop is the richeſt and moſt powerful prince of Bavaria next to the elector, his order is in good eſteem. In the year 1729, Albert elector of Bavaria, inſtituted the "*Order of St. George the Defender of the Immaculate Conception.*" The knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," inſtituted by the preſent landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel; is equally a military and civil order, but moſtly conferred on general officers. The preſent landgrave hath alſo inſtituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, and in the centre this motto, "*Pro Virtute et Fidelitate*;" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendent to a blue riband edged with ſilver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by

by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. At length, the Roman power, connected with artifice, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was ſhattered by the northern barbarians excurſions, Germany was over-run by the Franks about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to earls and marquiſſes of that nation. In this ſituation Germany continued, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was, that Charlemagne, one of thoſe eccentric and ſuperior geniuſſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, aſſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe, the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of theſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and ſometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the ſucceſſion. But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raiſed by Charlemagne, fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a ſucceſſor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's houſehold, his ſecretary, his ſtewards, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's perſon, and, like all other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they increaſed their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the houſe of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor *. Thus while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminiſhed by the

* Wiquefort ſaith, that nothing was ſettled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was choſen emperor in 1347, and made that famous conſtitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*.

power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperor's ſupremacy, and of the people's juriſdiction. Otho I. having in the year 962 united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy that he and his ſucceſſors ſhould have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting inveſtitures to biſhops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, ſurrendered up the right of inveſtiture and other powers, to the diſgrace of the imperial dignity: but pope Benedict XII. refuſing abſolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of ſuffrages of the electoral college ſhould confer the empire without the conſent of the pope, that he had no ſuperiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his ſucceſſors Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria. Charles V. grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in ſeveral parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king, Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the concluſion of it began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558, ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to get his ſon Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own lifetime, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue. I mention this deſtination, as it gave riſe to the late oppoſition made by the houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of the empreſs queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his lifetime. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, who were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at laſt, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commiſſaries out of a window at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war, which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his

Britannic

Britannic majeſty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague; and he was alſo deprived of his own electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The proteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies and continued the war with great firmneſs and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Chriſtian duke of Brunſwic, and count Mansfield; the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark declared for them; and Richlieu, the French miniſter, was not fond of ſeeing the houſe of Auſtria aggrandiſed. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtian having put himſelf at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made ſuch a uſe of his advantages obtained over the proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. I have already deſcribed his amazing victories and progreſs, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes, ſuch as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his wars with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary, and by the peace of Carlowitz in 1699, Tranſylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the Prince of Orange, afterwards king William the III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians, ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte or Turks, when that prince died in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very ſplendid victories, had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the labouring oar in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his ſlowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, was ſucceeded in the empire

by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhew as if he would continue the war; but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden, 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the ſame general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialiſts; and next year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leiſure in making arrangements for increaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover; an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the year 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I.; and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandiſement, was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points reſtored a good underſtanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the proſpect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed the great claims he had upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor, after this, had very bad ſucceſs in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and he obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers eaſy, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave than all he had ſo long laboured for muſt have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army entered, and conquered Sileſia, which he ſaid had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria ſet up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic ſanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Pruſſia, was forced to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia by a formal treaty.

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Her youth, her beauty, and ſufferings, and the noble fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians into whoſe arms ſhe threw herſelf and her little ſon; and though they had been always remarkable for their diſaffection to the houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miſerable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his anceſtor in queen Anne's reign, for ſiding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though adviſed to it by his Britannic majeſty, her beſt, and indeed only friend. This obſtinacy gave a colour for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand-duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian Majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themſelves. Upon this his Pruſſian majeſty, all of a ſudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now become great-duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was finiſhed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Sileſia was once more guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia. It was not long before that monarch's jealouſies were renewed and verified; and the empreſs of Ruſſia's views falling in with thoſe of the empreſs-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally ſupported by France in their new ſchemes, a freſh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 175[illegible]. The king of Pruſſia declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, and his Britannic majeſty againſt that of the French. Upon thoſe two principles all former differences between theſe monarchs were forgotten, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay an annual ſubſidy of 670,000l to his Pruſſian majeſty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Pruſſian majeſty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the Imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowoſitz, forced the Saxons to lay

down their arms, though almoſt impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Pruſſian majeſty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured by one quarter their armies, as the Ruſſians did by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Pruſſian majeſty on this occaſion is the moſt amazing that is to be met with in hiſtory. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Auſtrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marſhal Schwerin was on the ſide of the Pruſſians. He then beſieged Prague, and plied it with a moſt tremendous artillery; but juſt as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Auſtrian general Daun, obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and to fall back upon Eiſenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The Imperialiſts, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops: but they were beaten at the battle of Liſſa, and the Pruſſians took Breſlau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Ruſſians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aſpect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterpriſing genius of count Daun, laid his Pruſſian majeſty under infinite difficulties, notwithſtanding all his amazing victories. At firſt he defeated the Ruſſians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almoſt proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable preſence of mind. He was obliged, however, to ſacrifice Saxony, for the ſafety of Sileſia; and it has been obſerved, that few periods of hiſtory afford ſuch room for reflection as this campaign did; ſix ſieges were raiſed almoſt at the ſame time; that of Colberg, by the Ruſſians; that of Leipſic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dreſden, by Daun; and thoſe of Neiſs, Coſel, and Torgau, alſo by the Auſtrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital ſcenes which paſſed at the ſame time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the Engliſh, or their allies. The operations on both ſides are of little importance to hiſtory, becauſe nothing was done that was deciſive, though extremely burdenſome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empreſs-queen to his Britannic majeſty, and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Ruſſians had taken poſſeſſion of all the kingdom of Pruſſia, and laid ſiege to Colberg, the only port of his Pruſſian majeſty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Ruſſians; but he ſoon found them by far the moſt formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Sileſia. In this diſtreſs he acted with a courage and reſolution that bordered upon deſpair; but was, at laſt, totally defeated by the Ruſſians, with the loſs of 20,000 of his beſt men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. He had loſt, ſince the firſt of October 1756, the great marſhal Keith, and forty brave generals, beſides thoſe who were wounded and made priſoners. At Landſhut, the Imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Auſtrians a ready gate into Sileſia. None but his Pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. It is not perhaps very eaſy to account for the inactivity

of

of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealouſy which the Imperial generals entertained of their Ruſſian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the Imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in, but it coſt him 10,000 of his beſt troops, and was attended with no great conſequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Ruſſia, the taking of Colberg by the Ruſſians, and of Schweidnitz by the Auſtrians, ſeemed almoſt to have completed his ruin, when his moſt formidable enemy, the empreſs of Ruſſia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of thoſe illuſtrious perſonages were followed by great conſequences. The Britiſh miniſtry of George III. were ſolicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies.—His Pruſſian majeſty was, notwithſtanding, ſo very much reduced by his loſſes, that the empreſs-queen, probably, would have completed his deſtruction, had it not been for the wiſe backwardneſs of the other German princes, not to annihilate the houſe of Brandenburg. At firſt the empreſs-queen rejected all terms propoſed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The viſible backwardneſs of her generals to execute her orders, and the ſucceſſes obtained by his Pruſſian majeſty, at laſt prevailed upon her to agree to an armiſtice, which was ſoon followed by the treaty of Hubertſburg, February 15, 1763, which again ſecured to his Pruſſian majeſty the poſſeſſion of Sileſia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her huſband, in 1765, her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. His Imperial majeſty, ſoon after his acceſſion, diſcovered great talents for government, and for partitioning other countries. He joined in the diſmemberment of Poland, with Ruſſia and Pruſſia. He paid a viſit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome and the principal courts of Italy; and had a perſonal interview with his Pruſſian majeſty, though this did not prevent hoſtilities from being commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. The Auſtrian claims on this occaſion were very unjuſt, but in the ſupport of them, while the conteſt continued, the emperor diſplayed great military ſkill. Though vaſt armies were brought into the field on both ſides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. Since that event, the emperor has been much better employed than in the operations of war, except in his late demands on the Dutch for the free navigation of the Scheldt, &c. contrary to the ſtipulation of former treaties; in the obſervance of which, to ſupport his anceſtors, the Dutch as well as Engliſh ſpent many millions of money, and ſacrificed thouſands of ſouls. He has endeavoured, however, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, has granted a moſt liberal religious toleration, and ſuppreſſed moſt of the religious orders of both ſexes as being utterly uſeleſs and even pernicious to ſociety, and in 1783, by an edict, aboliſhed the remains of ſervitude and villanage, and fixed alſo the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a penſion in lieu. He has alſo aboliſhed the uſe of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peaſants and common people laboured. He is a prince of great penetration, of a philoſophical turn of mind, and mixes with his ſubjects with an eaſe

and

and affability that are very uncommon in perſons of his rank. He loves the converſation of ingenious men, and appears ſolicitous to cultivate that extenſive knowledge, which ennobles thoſe who adorn the elevated ſtation to which he has been raiſed.

Joſeph-Benedict-Auguſtus, emperor of Germany, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded his father as emperor in 1765, married the ſame year the princeſs Joſephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his firſt wife (the princeſs of Parma) a daughter, Thereſa-Elizabeth, born in 1762, but ſhe is dead, and the emperor had no iſſue by his laſt conſort.

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## THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. } THIS country is bounded to the North by part of Samogitia; to the South, by Poland Proper and Maſovia; to the Eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the Weſt, by Polith Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. } The name of Pruſſia is probably derived from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer, and game, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſhes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſts towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As Pruſſia, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, has become a moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe, I ſhall, for the information of my readers, deviate from my uſual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Pruſſian majeſty's territories, which lie ſcattered in other diviſions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table.

| Proteſtants. | Countries Names. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth | Chief Cities. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Poland. | Ducal Pruſſia | 9,950 | 160 | 112 | KONINGSBERG | 54-43 N. Lat. |
| | Royal Pruſſia. | 6,400 | 118 | 104 | Elbing | 21-35 E. Lon. |
| Up. Saxony. | Brandenburg | 10,910 | 215 | 110 | Berlin | |
| | Pomerania | 4,820 | 150 | 63 | Camin | |
| | Swed. Pomerania | 2,991 | 90 | 48 | Stetin | |
| Lo. Saxony. | Magdeburg | 1,535 | 63 | 50 | Magdeburg | |
| | Halberſtat | 450 | 42 | 17 | Halberſtat | |
| Bohemia | Glatz | 550 | 38 | 23 | Glatz | |
| | Sileſia | 10,000 | 196 | 92 | Breſlaw | |
| | Minden | 595 | 42 | 26 | Minden | |
| Weſtphalia. | Ravenſberg | 525 | 38 | 34 | Ravenſburg | |
| | Lingen | 120 | 15 | 11 | Lingen | |
| | Cleves | 630 | 43 | 21 | Cleves | |
| | Meurs | 35 | 10 | 6 | Meurs | |
| | Mark | 980 | 52 | 43 | Ham | |
| | Eaſt Frieſland | 690 | 46 | 32 | Embden | |
| | Lippe | 25 | 8 | 4 | Lipſtadt | |
| | Gulich | 528 | 44 | 24 | Gulich | |
| | Tecklenburg | 36 | 12 | 6 | Tecklenburg | |
| Netherlands. | Gelder | 360 | 34 | 23 | Gelders | |
| Switzerland. | Neufchatel | 320 | 32 | 20 | Neutchatel | |
| | Total— | 51,281 | | | | |

Beſides a great part of Sileſia, which the late king of Pruſſia under various pretences wreſted from Auſtria; availing himſelf alſo of the internal troubles in Poland, he has, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, ſeized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Viſtula, and the Neiſter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, cloſe to the walls of Dantzic. Theſe acquiſitions may be traced in the map.

I ſhall here confine myſelf to Pruſſia as a kingdom, becauſe his Pruſſian majeſty's other dominions fall under the deſcription of the countries where they lie

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone, were, by Dr. Buſching, computed to amount to 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms: and if ſo (for I greatly doubt that this computation is exaggerated), it muſt then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 1700 were Saltſburghers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 86 ſeats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany. The ſame may be ſaid of their cuſtoms and diverſions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES. The religion of Pruſſia is, through his late majeſty's wiſdom, very tolerant. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, but chiefly the former; but papiſts, antipœdo-papiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Koningſberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkably learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian

Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Koningsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Busching, the city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I doubt, is a little exaggerated likewise, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Koningsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping, its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university which contains 38 professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour, and a citadel, which is called Fredericsburg, a regular square.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The late king of Prussia endeavoured to increase the commerce of his kingdom; but the despotic nature of his government was not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Prussian manufactures, however, are not inconsiderable: they consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hempseed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and cavier: and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities chiefly from Koningsberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, and he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state, viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, the late king erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own skilful political regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which about a century and a half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known; though we may conclude that it is very considerable from the immense charges of the late war. His revenues now, since the accession of Polish or Royal Prussia, must be greatly increased: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation was of vast importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Prussia. By this acquisition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Koningsberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and, during

during the laſt war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconſiſtent with the intereſts of the people. The army is chiefly compoſed of provincial regiments; the whole Pruſſian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the ſize and populouſneſs of the diviſion, have been originally raiſed, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of ſons a peaſant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the ſervice except one, who is left to aſſiſt in the management of the farm. The reſt wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are deſtined to be ſoldiers, and obliged to enter into the ſervice whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining ſo large an army, in a country naturally ſo little equal to it, has occaſioned ſuch a drain from population, and ſuch a withdrawing of ſtrength from the labours of the earth, that the late king endeavoured in ſome degree to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. Theſe foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Pruſſians have every year ſome months of furlough, during which they return to the houſes of their fathers or brothers, and work at the buſineſs of the farm, or in any other way they pleaſe.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Pruſſia are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſcepire, Or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicicular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburgh. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood, The "Order of *Concord*," inſtituted by Chriſtian Erneſt, margrave of Brandenburgh, in the year 1660, to diſtinguiſh the part he had acted in reſtoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburgh, and afwards king of Pruſſia, inſtituted in 1685, the "Order of *Generoſity*." The knights wear a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Generoſité*," pendent to a blue ſiband. The ſame prince inſtituted the "Order of the *Black Eagle*," on the day of his coronation at Koningſberg, in the year 1700; the ſovereign is always grand-maſter, and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who muſt all be admitted into the "Order of *Generoſity*," previous to their receiving this, unleſs they be ſovereign princes. The "Order of *Merit*" was inſtituted by the late king in the year 1740 to reward the merit of perſons either in arms or arts, without diſtinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is ſovereign, and the number of knights unlimited.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, deſcended from the Sclavonians, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Chriſtianity, wanted to ſubject them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their converſion

converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans.—After a vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Caſimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cauſe of the oppreſſed people, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert margrave of Brandenburgh, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia), but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendants were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic-William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates, and proclaimed January 8, 1701, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the late king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed prodigious ſervices to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful reſources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the preſent age. He improved the arts of peace, as well as of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. Some of the principal tranſactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the hiſtory of Germany. In the year 1783 he publiſhed a reſcript, ſignifying his pleaſure that no kneeling in future ſhould be practiſed in honour of his perſon, aſſigning for his reaſon, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the divinity: And near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him in 1782 in draining marſhes, eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and in other purpoſes of philanthropy and policy.

Frederic III. king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburgh, was born in 1712, married in 1733, to Elizabeth-Chriſtina of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, born

born in 1714, by whom he had no iſſue. He died Auguſt 17, 1786, aged 75, having reigned 46 years, 2 months, 17 days. And was ſucceeded by Frederic-William, his nephew (ſon of his brother William-Auguſtus), born in 1744, and married in 1765 to the princeſs Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunſwic.

His preſent majeſty's ſiſter, Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, was born in 1751, and married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

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# The KINGDOM of BOHEMIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 478<br>Breadth 322 | between | 48 and 52 north latitude.<br>12 and 19 eaſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, on the Eaſt; by Auſtria and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the Weſt; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and, 3. Moravia.

| Diviſions. | Chief Towns. | Miles. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria. | Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50.<br>Koningſgratz, E.<br>Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.<br>Egra, W. | Length 162<br>Breadth 142 | 12,060 |
| 2. Sileſia, Eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. | Breſlaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15.<br>Glogaw, N.<br>Croſſen, N.<br>Jagendorf, S.<br>Tropaw, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.<br>Teſchen, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. | Length 196<br>Breadth 92 | 10,250 |
| 3. Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. | Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40.<br>Brin, middle.<br>Igla, S. W. | Length 120<br>Breadth 88 | 5,424 |

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of the reſt of Germany, though its ſoil and produce are pretty much the ſame.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, contains none of note or diſtinction: its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

METALS

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glaſs.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the preſent population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but at preſent not above 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle ſtate of people; for every lord is a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. But the preſent emperor has generouſly diſcharged the Bohemian peaſants, on the Imperial demeſnes, from the ſtate of villanage in which they have been ſo long and ſo unjuſtly retained; and it will be happy if his Imperial majeſty's example ſhould be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby led to ceaſe to deprive their vaſſals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at preſent, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly diſtinguiſhed themſelves as the moſt intrepid aſſertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witneſs the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was ſcarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Auſtrian power, and their generous ſtruggles for independency. Their virtues may be conſidered as the cauſes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their deſpotic maſters for breaking their ſpirit: though it is certain their internal jealouſies and diſſenſions greatly contributed to their ſubjection. Their cuſtoms and diverſions are the ſame as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the eſtabliſhed religion of Bohemia, yet there are many Proteſtants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion; and ſome of the Moravians have embraced a viſionary unintelligible proteſtantiſm, if it deſerves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous miſſionaries, in ſeveral parts of the globe; ſome of whom a few years ago made proſelytes in Great Britain; they have ſtill a meeting-houſe in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a ſettlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbiſhoprick. The biſhopricks areKoningſgratz, Breſlaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally ſpeak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only univerſity in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the fineſt and moſt magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is ſo large, that the grand Pruſſian army, in its laſt ſiege, never could completely inveſt it. For this reaſon it is able to make a vigorous defence in caſe of a regular ſiege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciouſneſs, being computed not to exceed 70,000 Chriſtians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloiſters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are ſaid to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for ſtrength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glaſs, paper, and gunpowder. Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, hath been already deſcribed.

COMMERCE

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; but the government under the emperor is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. Their ſovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill uſage, as they have a general averſion towards the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the ſovereign is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and paſſed in ſaltier, crowned, langued, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that throne themſelves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Auſtria received three crowns, Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414 John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the window of the council-chamber; and the famous Ziſca, aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove the Imperialiſts out of the kingdom.—The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves enabled the emperors to regain and keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being ſtripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a ſubſiſtence. After a war of 30 years duration, which deſolated the whole empire, the Bohemians, ſince that time, have remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

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# HUNGARY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 300 | between | 17 and 23 East long. | 36,060 |
| Breadth | 200 | | 45 and 49 North lat. | |

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries),

countries), is bounded by Poland, on the North; by Tranſylvania and Walachia, Eaſt; by Sclavonia, South; and by Auſtria and Moravia, Weſt.

The kingdom of Hungary is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

| UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief Towns. | LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| Preſburg, ſituate on the Danube, E. lon. 17-30. N. lat. 48-20. | Buda, on the Danube, E. lon. 19-20. N. lat. 47-40. |
| Newhauſel, N. W. | Gran, on the Danube, above Buda. |
| Leopolſtadt, N. W. | Comorra, on the Danube, in the iſland of Schut. |
| Chremnits, N. W. | Raab, on the Danube, oppoſite to the iſland of Schut. |
| Schemnits, in the middle. | Atlenburg, W. oppoſite to the iſland of Schut. |
| Eſperies, N. | Weiſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, ſituated E. of the lake, called the Platten ſea. |
| Caſchaw, N. | Kaniſba, S. W. of the Platten ſea. |
| Tokay, N. E. | Five Churches, N. of the river Drave. |
| Zotmar, N. E. | |
| Unguar, N. E. | |
| Mongats, N. E. | |
| Waradin, Great, E. | |
| Segedin, S. E. | |
| Agria, in the middle. | |
| Peſt, on the Danube, oppoſite to Buda. | |

To which may be added Temeſwar, which has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, becauſe it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has ſeveral times been in the poſſeſſion of the Turks: but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeſwar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 ſquare miles: it has been divided into four diſtricts, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeſwar, the principal town, is ſituated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and conſequently the climate of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buckwheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one ſixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.]

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, chryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars between Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their works being deſtroyed or demoliſhed; ſome of them however ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe-coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, we have reaſon to think, that Hungary was one of the moſt populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the houſe of Auſtria ſhould give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works and clear their fens, it might become ſo again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themſelves. They pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes, who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under the arm, ſo that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are a broad ſword, and a kind of pole-ax, beſides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs with ſleeves ſtrait to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur, and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are moſt miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants, and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other

ſtrangers ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannized over by the houſe of Auſtria, they often put themſelves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empreſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeſwar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at about 450,000. There are in this country many taraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are ſaid to reſemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propenſity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms; and it is aſſerted, that the laſcivious dances of Iſis, the worſhip of onions, many famous Egyptian ſuperſtitions and ſpecifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians is the Roman-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are proteſtants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exerciſe of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza. The biſhopricks are, Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt rank ſpeak German, and almoſt all even of the common people ſpeak Latin, either pure or barbarous, ſo that the Latin may be ſaid to be here ſtill a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities (if they can properly be ſo called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſchaw, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who uſed generally to be Jeſuits: ſo that the Lutherans and Calviniſts, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck built over the Danube, and Drave, is properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, judged to be the moſt magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away farther ſouth than has yet been diſcovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars

are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philoſophy. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Theſe are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were lately removed to Vienna. The crown was ſent in the year 1000 by pope Sylveſter II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of ſolid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 ſaphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Beſides theſe ſtones are the images of the apoſtles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation a biſhop carries it before the king. From the croſs is derived the title of apoſtolic king; the uſe of which was renewed under the reign of the empreſs-queen Maria Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is the work of Giſele, ſpouſe of St. Stephen, who embroidered in gold the image of Jeſus Chriſt crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apoſtles, with a number of inſcriptions. The ſword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications; and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives conſiſt of metals, drugs, and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of Queen, and even called their late ſovereign king Thereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the Geſpan chaſts reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it above 10,000; theſe are generally light-horſe, and well known to modern times by the name of Huſſars. They are not near ſo large as the German horſe; and therefore the Huſſars ſtand upon their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs have been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that the greateſt powers in Europe have troops that go by the ſame name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horſe and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are ſtill extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins

of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial enſigns, bears quarterly, barwiſe argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were ſucceeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari, and the Sclavi were planted in their ſtead in the beginning of the 9th century. At the cloſe of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took poſſeſſion of the country. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates, and the firſt who aſſumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chriſtianity. In his reign, the form of government was eſtabliſhed, and the crown to be elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of thoſe conqueſts were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raiſed Matthias Corvinus, ſon of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almoſt proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the ſiſter of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he ſucceeded, with ſome difficulty, and that kingdom has ever ſince belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, though by its conſtitution its crown ought to be elective. For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

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## TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

I HAVE thrown thoſe countries under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, and particularly becauſe we have no account ſufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The beſt account of them is as follows: TRANSYLVANIA belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, and is bounded on the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the Eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia; on the South by Walachia; and on the Weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 ſquare miles, but it is ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtadt, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of moſt of their privileges. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Greeks,

Greeks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageſwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All ſorts of proviſions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanſtadt is a large, ſtrong, and well built city, as are Clauſenburg and Weiſſenburg. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of the Roman catholics, Calviniſts and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tranſylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be ſubdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained; but if the Tranſylvanians can bring to the field, as has been aſſerted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants muſt be conſiderable. At preſent its military force is reduced to ſix regiments of 1500 men each; but it is well known, that during the laſt two wars, in which the houſe of Auſtria was engaged, the Tranſylvanians did great ſervice. Hermanſtadt is its only biſhoprick; and the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Chriſtianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under ſlavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699 gave the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania, as alſo of Sclavonia, to the houſe of Auſtria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal ariſtocracy, which their ſovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppreſſions of the nobility, near 16,000 aſſembled and committed great depredations on thoſe whoſe conduct had been reſented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to eſcape with their lives. The revolters were diſappointed in their attempt on Clauſenburgh; and afterwards offered to ſeparate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vaſſalage. In the preſent ſituation of the emperor, lenient terms have been granted to them, and with the puniſhment of a few, the inſurrection is ſuppreſſed.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 23d degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the Eaſt, by the Save on the South, and by Kiria in Auſtria on the Weſt. The reaſon why Hungary, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria in thoſe parts, contain a ſurpriſing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is becauſe liberty here made its laſt ſtand againſt the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered, into thoſe quarters. The thickneſs of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the ſtrength of the country, favoured their reſiſtance; and their deſcendants, notwithſtanding the power of the Turks, the Auſtrians, the Hungarians,

and the Poles, ſtill retain the ſame ſpirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the ſovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them moſt at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the houſe of Auſtria, which, till the laſt two wars, never was ſenſible of their value and valour; inſomuch that it is well known, that they preſerved the pragmatic ſanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave ſo much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *ſlave* took its origin from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, ſo late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Tranſylvania, yet the ravages of war are ſtill viſible in the face of the country, which lies in a great meaſure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two biſhopricks; that of Poſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. Eſſeck is a large and ſtrong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marſhes, five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Auſtrians and Turks. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two laſt wars. In 1716, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the ſtates ſend repreſentatives to the diet of Hungary.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 44th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and about 2,500 ſquare miles. The manners, government, religion, language and cuſtoms of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as ſuch are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and various other deſignations. The truth is, the houſe of Auſtria finds its intereſt in ſuffering them and the neighbouring nations to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there ſcarcely being any diſtinction of boundaries. Carolſtadt is a place of ſome note, but Zagrab (already mentioned) is the capital of Croatia. All the ſovereignty exerciſed over them by the Auſtrians ſeems to conſiſt in the military arrangements for bringing them occaſionally into the field. A viceroy preſides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

Hungarian Dalmatia: this lies in the upper part of the Adriatic ſea, and conſiſts of five diſtricts, in which the moſt remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is ſituated near the ſea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor reſides in the old palace, called the Royal Caſtle. 2. Ottoſchatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortreſs where the governor, and the greateſt part of the garriſon reſide, is ſurrounded with a wall, and ſome towers: but the reſt of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; ſo that one neighbour cannot viſit another without a boat.

Near


POLAND
LITHUANIA and
PRUSSIA
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.
BALTIC SEA
SWEDEN
GOTHLAND I.
OELAND I.
Bornholm I.
Wollin I.
Calmar
Christianstand
Pt. Hobora
Windau
Gulf of Riga
LIVONIA
Goldingen
Libbau
COURLAND
Mitau
Polangen
Memmel
Miedniki
SAMOGITIA
Windsburg
Raslem
Sarkau
Labiau
Gulf of Dantzic
KONINGSBURG
Pregel R.
Oliva
DANTZIC
Stolpe
Lebe
Brandenburg
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
Elbing
Marienburg
Angerburg
Lick
Wischiten
Kowna
Prena
Olita
Merecz
Kobriele
Grodno
Stettin
New Stettin
Hamerstein
Tauchel
Schoneck
POLISH PRUSSIA
Fridelland
Vistula R.
Nove PRUSSIA
Loban
Soldin
Thorn
Gonins
Wisna
Solitz
Czarnkow
Warta R.
Gnesna
Gopto L.
Wladislaw
Makow
Ostrolenka
Biesh
Posnan
Strodá
Warzunow
Gostynin
Pleczko
Sierock
Mielnik
Bresiici
Jesno
POLAND
Kalisch
Lencicz
Adelnau
Bresini
Wolbern
Miedzyrzecze
Kasmiers
Wreschen
Boleslau
Przedhors
Ilsa
Lublin
Parkow
Chelm
Breslau
Oder R.
Oppeln
Olstin
LITTLE
Rachow
Sandomir
Krasnoslaw
Miechow
Rakow
Cracow
Vistula R.
Baran R.
RED
Boglour
Tarlor
POLAND
Lundskoran
Jaroslaw
Przemysl
Bomarna
RUSSIA
Biecz
Sanok
Dolina
Carpathian Mountains
HUNGARY
Hust
Kolonea
Lemberg
Zamoisk
Tarnogrod
Brodby
Pinsk
Slatitzee
Kamien
Kowel
Turzisk
Targow
Belcz
Kobzea
Niesto R.
Grodno
Bielsk
Motol
Chomsk
Nurzec
Sezara
Augustowo
Kobriele
Olsian
Merecz
Olita
Cezmiana
Wilna
Brodzca
Novogrodek
Grodeck
Nurzec
Bug R.
Warsaw
Vistula R.
Nur R.
Narew R.
Augustowo
Kobriele
Grodno
Bielsk
Motol
Pinsk
Slatitzee
Kamien
Kowel
Turzisk
Targow
Belcz
Kobzea
Niesto R.
Lemberg
Zamoisk
Tarnogrod
Brodby
Kolonea
Zamoisk
Tarnogrod
Brodby
Kobzea
Niesto R.
Kowel
Kamien
Slatitzee
Pinsk
Motol
Chomsk
Nurzec
Sezara
Bielsk
Grodno


RUSSIA
Polish Miles
12 24
Welikie Luki
Dwina
Duneburg
Newel
Riv.
Sokol
Braslaw
Polock
Pelicany
Wilepsk
Kobylniany
Turowla
Obol
GREAT DUTCHY
Smolensko
Pileka
Susa
Orsa
Dubrowna
Wilna
Zodziski
Iwie
Iwieiel
Tropis
Wilia R.
Iobriedzion
Borozyna
Tresnica
Mscislaw
Czemiana
Szilow
Olsiany
Zabin
Minsk
Czausy
Mohilgen
Zerikow
LITHUANIA
Nieman R.
Oczyce
Nieper R.
Klinpin
Norogrodeck
Niesniez
Szack
Rohaczow
Black
Slonim
Slutsk
Bohrusk
Ostrow
Berezina R.
Horwal
Sezara R.
Rzeczyca
Motol
Prypec
Pinsk
Orly
Dawidow
Riv.
Iubicz
POLESIA
Pohost
Bucza
Mozyr
Dubrowka
Bicta
Choka
Nawez
Kolki
Zablocka
Czernobyl
Vsra R.
Lelcze
Lucko
Iwiatiel
Iolkowka
VOLHINIA
Wiszgorod
Kiow
Targowica
Zytomirz
Ostrog
Mirnopel
Kremenicc
Czudnow
Brodby
Kusniowiec
Zaslaw
Mirgpole
Constantinow
Bialacerkiew
Chimielnik
Pawlosz
Medubor
Iaricznow
Mezerof
Winnicze
Kokanow
Korsun
PODOLIA
Brzezany
Camieniec
Grudek
Krasne
Buki
Czyrkassi
Braslaw
Black Forest
Chotzim
Iadizin
Ozchrva
Kolonel
Uzhulah
Czernancu
Kamienicza
Koniecpole
TURKEY IN EUROPE
Rasken
Nieper R.
Nieper R.
EUROPE
25
26
27
32
33
56
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48

Near Segna dwell the Uſcocs, a people, who being galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scoco, which ſignifies a *deſerter*. They are alſo called ſpringers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. They are a rough, ſavage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their viſible employment is grazing. They uſe the Walachian language, and in their religious ſentiments and mode of worſhip approach neareſt to the Greek church; but ſome of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs alſo to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the eaſt of Tranſylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Buchareſt, and Severin.

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# POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 00 | between | 16 and 34 eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth 680 | between | 46 and 57 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed, (anciently called Sarmatia) was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic ſea; on the Eaſt by Muſcovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the Weſt by Germany: And had the form of its government been as perfect as its ſituation was compact, it might have been one of the moſt powerful kingdoms in the univerſe. Its grand diviſions were,

| | Poland. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Proteſtants. | Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia. | 4,414 | 174 | 80 | Mittaw |
| Papiſts. | Lithuania, | 64,800 | 333 | 310 | Wilna (Great part of this diſtrict is now poſſeſſed by Ruſſia.) |
| | Podolia, | 29,000 | 360 | 120 | Kaminieck |
| | Volhinia, | 25,000 | 305 | 150 | Lucko |
| | Great Poland, | 19,200 | 208 | 180 | Gneſna |
| | Red Ruſſia, | 25,200 | 232 | 185 | Lemburg (Now chiefly ſubject to Auſtria.) |
| | Little Poland, | 18,000 | 230 | 130 | Cracow (Now chiefly ſubject to Auſtria.) |
| | Poleſia, | 14,000 | 186 | 97 | Breſſici |
| | Maſovia, | 8,400 | 152 | 90 | WARSAW (E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.) |
| | Samogitia, | 8,000 | 155 | 98 | Raſiem |
| | Pruſſia Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia, | 6,400 | 118 | 104 | Elbing (Now ſubject to Pruſſia.) |
| | Podachia, | 4,000 | 133 | 42 | Bielh |
| | Total— | 229,414 | | | |

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Pruſſia Royal, are ſtyled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two laſt were ſeized by the late King of Pruſſia, and moſt of the privileges of the firſt.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word ſignifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beaſts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a ſituation, but the air is rather inſalubrious by reaſon of the numerous woods and moraſſes.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that are ſent from thence down the Viſtula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are rich beyond expreſſion: and it is ſaid one can hardly ſee the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, ſeveral ſpecies of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; falſe precious ſtones, and marine petrefactions. The interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſuch great quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building, inſtead of bricks, ſtone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring, in the palatinate of Cracow, which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame however dances on the ſurface, without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguiſhed, which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf, by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtula or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neiper or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzeſty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable), which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food dreſſed various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces large as a man's fiſt, ſuppoſed to be the production of a reſinous pine.

The foreſts of Warſovia or Maſovia contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves,

wolves, boars, the glouton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes, and aſſes, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt furs in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of the greateſt feaſts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high; the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough, and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in its head ſome large flies, with its brains almoſt eaten away; and it is an obſervation ſufficiently atteſted, that in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the North, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling ſickneſs, by which means it is taken, which would otherwiſe prove no eaſy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac; it reſembles a guinea-pig, but ſeems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occaſionally for food, till April; they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any ſpecies of birds peculiar to itſelf: only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their fleſh is reckoned to be unwholeſome. Lithuania is rich in ornithology; among the birds of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little ſpecies of titmouſe, is frequently found in theſe parts, famous for the wondrous ſtructure of its pendent neſt, formed in the ſhape of a long purſe with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

From what has been ſaid of the extent of Poland, it is impoſſible to form an eſtimate of the number of its inhabitants; they undoubtedly before the breaking out of the late war, were very numerous; but they are ſo little known, even at preſent, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue ſtill to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Chriſtianity. Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants: and when we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. But ſince the partition and diſmemberment of the kingdom the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Ruſſia are the largeſt, by Auſtria the moſt populous, and by Pruſſia the moſt commercial. The Ruſſian contain 1,500,000. The Auſtrian 2,500,000; and the Pruſſian about 860,000, amounting to about 5,000,000 of ſouls ſeparated from their ancient kingdom.

The Poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable: and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands. Their diverſions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horſe, hunting, ſkaiting, bull and bear baiting. They uſually travel on horſeback: a Poliſh gentleman will

will not travel a ſtone's-throw without his horſe; and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never live above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling houſe on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds, and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry their bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles, who are poor, frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich: but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf: but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility; and the reader may figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive, and ſhewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman-uſher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of their pomp, however, is proportioned to their eſtates; but each perſon goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, and peaſants: the peaſants are divided into two ſorts, thoſe of the crown, and thoſe belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They have many conſiderable privileges; and indeed the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals, pay no taxes, are ſubject to none but the king, may chuſe whom they will for their king, and lay him under what reſtraints they pleaſe by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, and as we have ſaid with a deſpotic power over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſſign over

with

with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Caſimir the Great, the lord could put his peaſant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, conſidered himſelf as the heir, and ſeized all his effects. In 1347, Caſimir preſcribed a fine for the murder of a peaſant, and enacted, that in caſe of his deceaſe without iſſue, his next heir ſhould inherit. But theſe and other regulations have proved ineffectual, againſt the power and tyranny of the nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of them have eſtates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles poſſeſſes above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force. They have their horſe and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate are often determined by the ſword. When great men have ſuits at law, the diet or other tribunals decide them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword, for the juſtice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raiſe 5 or 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they think it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peaſants, they are born ſlaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The peaſants having no property, all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich their maſter. They are indiſpenſably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment. One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, the generality of them ſcarcely entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſevere lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready, upon every occaſion, to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Moſt of them ſeem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vaſſals ſeem to be carried

ried to a much greater height. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened underſtandings, have ventured to give liberty to their vaſſals. The firſt who granted this freedom, was Zamoiſki, formerly great chancellor, who in 1760, enfranchiſed ſix villages in the palatinate of Maſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates. The event hath ſhewed the project to be no leſs judicious than humane; friendly to the noble's own intereſts as well as the happineſs of the peaſants, for it appears, that in the diſtricts in which the new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of their eſtates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew of the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw, and hath not only emancipated his peaſants from ſlavery, but condeſcends to direct their affairs. So that better times in that diſtreſſed country may be expected.

DRESS.] The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves ſit as cloſe to their arm as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of cloaths, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon.

Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the Poles to be pictureſque and majeſtic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into his court, and after his reſtoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of Engliſh broad-cloth; but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter they wear a ſheep's-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſoles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the diſtrict of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns in this country are long ſtables built with boards and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally chooſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſions with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

RELIGION.]

RELIGION.] The number of Proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in the republic of Poland, is very conſiderable; and when theſe are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called DISSIDENTS. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman catholic religion, even to enthuſiaſm. The treaty of Oliva, which was concluded in 1660, and tolerated the diſſidents, was guarantied by the principal powers in Europe; but has ſince been ſo far diſregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre, under the ſanction of law, of the Proteſtants at Thorn, for which no ſatisfaction has been as yet obtained. The ſame may be ſaid of the other numerous proviſions made for the protection of the proteſtants, who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are by ſome writers ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are poſſeſſed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom. The Poliſh clergy, in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are ſome of the moſt profligate of mankind. They are often ſeen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. After what has been ſaid, the reader cannot be at a loſs to account for the vaſt ſway which the popiſh clergy have had in Poland at different periods, notwithſtanding the treaties and capitulations which have been made in favour of the proteſtants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed, it has been chiefly owing to the influence and conduct of the popiſh clergy, that the peaſants in Poland have been reduced to ſuch a ſtate of wretched ſlavery.

The principles of Socinianiſm made a very early and conſiderable progreſs in Poland. A tranſlation of the Bible into the Poliſh language was publiſhed in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the ſame perſons, the catechiſm, or confeſſion of the Unitarians, was publiſhed at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extenſive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly perſecuted. However, it was lately reſolved between the republic and partitioning powers, that all diſſidents ſhould henceforth enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, though to continue excluded from the diet, the ſenate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; alſo ſchools and ſeminaries of their own, and are capable of ſitting in the inferior courts of juſtice.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] Poland contains two archbiſhopricks; Gneſna and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gneſna, beſides being primate, and during an inter-reign prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on account of the vaſt number of conſonants it employs, ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Voſſius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its ſoil is far from being favourable to learning.

learning. Latin is ſpoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhewn for learning; the ſervitude of the lower people, and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of men, theſe circumſtances have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his preſent majeſty, ſtill continue to retard the progreſs of letters in this kingdom. However, of late a taſte for ſcience hath ſpread itſelf among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accompliſhment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Wilna, and Poſna or Poſen. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of 14 grammar-ſchools diſperſed through the city, the number of ſtudents, in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the ſuperintendance of the Jeſuits, but ſince their ſuppreſſion the king hath eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies: that of Poſna was rather a Jeſuits college than an univerſity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The frequent incurſions of the Tartars and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts, otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of almoſt all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is ſaid that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of ſpeech.

The ſalt mines of Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of theſe are dug four different kinds of ſalts; one extremely hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; theſe are all brackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. Theſe four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one ſide of them is a ſtream of ſalt-water, and on the other one of freſh. The revenue ariſing from thoſe, and other ſalt-mines, is very conſiderable, and formed part of the royal revenue before ſeized by Auſtria; the annual average profit of thoſe of Wiclitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about 98,000l. ſterling. Out of ſome mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, are dug ſeveral kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potters uſe, and ſupply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved, though buried a vaſt number of years ſince, being neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this perſevering quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. Poland can boaſt of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themſelves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels, preſented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preſerved in the cathedral of Gneſna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It is the royal reſidence; and contains many magnificent palaces and

and other buildings, beſides churches and convents. It is ſaid to contain near 70,000 inhabitants, but a great number are foreigners. The ſtreets are ſpacious but ill paved, and the greateſt part of the houſes, particularly in the ſuburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a ſtrong contraſt of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The ſame may be ſaid of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is diſputed by Warſaw); for we are told, that notwithſtanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich ſalt mines, and is ſaid to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable. The city ſtands in an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula, and with the ſuburbs occupy a vaſt ſpace of ground, but all together ſcarcely contain 16,000 ſouls. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened with round and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification, and is garriſoned with 600 Ruſſians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and ſtraggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houſes, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants; 1000 of which are Jews, and 3000 are employed in new manufactures of cloths, camblets, linen, cotton, ſilk, ſtuffs, &c. eſtabliſhed there by the king in 1776. He hath alſo eſtabliſhed in this place, an academy of phyſic for Lithuania, in which 10 ſtudents are inſtructed for phyſic, and 20 for ſurgery, all taught and maintained at his own expence.

Dantzic is the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, and is famous in hiſtory on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe-towns. It is ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but later computations fall very conſiderably ſhort of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Buſching, who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous; but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations: Poland being juſtly deemed the greateſt magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greateſt port for diſtributing it every where: beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt variety of other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſome pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch: but

generally have ſhewn a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Staniſlaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of the city.

The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is, becauſe not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland, reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges.

This city, as well as that of Thorn, were exempted by the king of Pruſſia from thoſe claims which he lately made on the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, his late Pruſſian majeſty, ſoon after, thought proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Poliſh Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and inſupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion, cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, ſo that no perſons could go in or out of the town, without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic received from the late king of Pruſſia, though few cities have ever exiſted, which have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured, and guarantied by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences; by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negociation carried on by deputies at Warſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September, by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be reſtored to its former ſtability. The city of Thorn was alſo treated by the late king of Pruſſia in the ſame unjuſt and oppreſſive manner with that of Dantzic, and was afterwards added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and their other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this ſubject. It differs little from an ariſtocracy, hence Poland hath been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elect him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres: but if the minority are ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſues. Immediately after his election, he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; ſo that in fact he is no more than preſident of the ſenate, which is compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop

archbiſhop of Lemburgh, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the Palatines and Caſtellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two, and ſometimes three years; the latter is ſummoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The Staroſts properly are governors and judges in particular ſtaroſties or diſtricts, though ſome enjoy this title without any juriſdiction at all. The Palatines and Caſtellans, beſides being ſenators, are lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their reſpective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can ſit but ſix weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts. The king ſends them letters containing the heads of the buſineſs that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may ſit in the dietine, and chuſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſts of the king, ſenators, and thoſe deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and ſeventy for Pruſſia; and it meets twice at Warſaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of ſtate, but they are accountable only to the ſenate; neither can he diſplace them when once appointed. When he is abſent from Poland, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gneſna, and if that ſee is vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſko.

The ten great officers of ſtate in Poland, who are ſenators, are, the two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the great treaſurer of the kingdom, and the treaſurer of the duchy; the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the kingdom, and the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley conſtitution, which was new-modelled with almoſt every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* he is obliged to ſign; ſo that nothing can be ſaid of it with certainty, there being lately a total diſſolution of all order in Poland, through the influence of ſome of the neighbouring powers, intereſted to foment anarchy and confuſion in the Poliſh councils: and many of the firſt nobility do not bluſh to receive penſions from foreign courts. It muſt however be acknowledged, that in this imperfect ſketch, we can diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet inveſt him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wiſe people. The inſtitutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the republic: but it laboured even in its beſt ſtate, under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or the tribunitial negative, that is veſted in every member of a diet or dietine, muſt always be deſtructive of order and government. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords, in former ages, uſed to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in queſtion is not to be found in any period of the Poliſh hiſtory, antecedent to the reign of John Caſimir. It was under his adminiſtration that, in the year 1652, when the diet of Warſaw was debating upon tranſactions of the utmoſt importance which required a ſpeedy determination, that Sicinſki, nuncio of

Upita in Lithuania, cried out, "I ſtop the proceedings." Having uttered theſe words, he quitted the aſſembly, and, repairing immediately to the chancellor, proteſted, that as many acts had been propoſed and carried contrary to the conſtitution of the republic, if the diet continued to ſit, he ſhould conſider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderſtruck at a proteſt of this nature, hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or diſſolving the diet: at length, however, the venal and diſcontented faction, who ſupported the proteſt, obtained the majority; and the aſſembly broke up in great confuſion. The want of ſubordination in the executive parts of the conſtitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemiſh which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only by their own conſent. After all, when we examine the beſt accounts of the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient hiſtory of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful ſimilarity between what theſe were formerly, and what Poland is at preſent. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and to maintain thoſe unequal privileges which are ſo hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to poſſeſs an extenſive territory within the kingdom, ſhould be elected ſovereign, he might, perhaps, by a proper uſe of the prerogatives of diſpoſing of all places of truſt and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, which are already veſted in the crown, eſtabliſh the ſucceſſion in his own family, and deliver the Poles from thoſe perpetual convulſions which generally attend elective kingdoms.

Indeed the partitioning powers, beſides diſmembering the beſt provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confuſion. They inſiſted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at laſt obtained. By the *firſt* "that the crown of Poland ſhould be for ever elective, and all order of ſucceſſion proſcribed;" thus the excluſion of a king's ſon and grandſon, removes the proſpect of an hereditary ſovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inſeparable from an elective monarchy. By the *ſecond*, "that foreign candidates to the throne ſhall be excluded, and for the future no perſon can be choſen king of Poland, excepting a native Pole of noble origin and poſſeſſing land in the kingdom;" the houſe of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and reſtore its provinces and liberties, are ſet aſide. By the *third*, "the government of Poland ſhall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form;" the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equeſtrian order are confirmed in their utmoſt latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in which the executive power ſhall be veſted; and in this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto excluded from the adminiſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be admitted," ſo that the prerogatives of the crown are ſtill farther diminiſhed: but this change of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning powers to ſerve their own purpoſes,

and give a large ſcope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not ſeized.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is ſtinted in the political exerciſe of his prerogative, yet his revenue is ſufficient to maintain him and his houſehold with great ſplendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of ſtate, nor even his body-guards. The preſent king had 1,000,000 and a half of florins ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues aroſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Auſtrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſterling; ancient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomicz.

Weſtern Pruſſia was the greateſt loſs to Poland, as by the diſmemberment of that province, the navigation of the Viſtula depends entirely upon the king of Pruſſia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, for Pruſſia has laid ſuch heavy duties on the merchandiſe paſſing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminiſh the trade of that town, and to tranſfer a conſiderable part of it to Memel and Koningſburgh.

| | £. ſterl. | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| By the diſmemberment, Poland loſt near half her annual income. To ſupply this deficiency, it became neceſſary to new-model and increaſe the taxes. | | | |
| In 1775, all the impoſts amounted to - - | 323,012 | 0 | 0 |
| The neat revenue of the king is - - | 194,500 | 0 | 0 |
| Out of which he only pays his houſehold expences, and menial ſervants. It ariſes from his royal demeſnes, ſtaroſtlies, and 74,074l. out of the treaſury. | | | |
| Whole revenue - - - | 443,938 | 0 | 0 |
| Deduct the king's revenue for privy purſe - | 194,500 | 0 | 0 |
| For army, ſtate officers, and all other charges - | 249,438 | 0 | 0 |

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, and that with eaſe; but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are ſoon diſmiſſed, becauſe they muſt be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Poliſh grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſted in 1778, of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The empreſs of Ruſſia maintains in the country 10,000 ſoldiers, and every garriſon is compoſed of Ruſſians and natives: 1000 of the former are ſtationed at Warſaw. Theſe hold the nobles in ſubjection, and the king himſelf is little more than a viceroy, while the Ruſſian ambaſſador regulates the affairs of the kingdom under the direction of his court. The poſpolite conſiſts of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the ſtaroſts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occaſions; but he

cannot keep them above ſix weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both thoſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcymetars. After all that has been ſaid, the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to all diſcipline; and when drawn out, notwithſtanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himſelf, have over them, they are oppreſſive and deſtructive to the court. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. It did not ſuit the Saxon princes, who ſucceeded that hero, to encourage a martial ſpirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; not indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been ſince ſeverely felt in that country.

ORDERS.] The "order of the *White Eagle*" was firſt inſtituted by Uladiſlaus in the year 1325, but revived by Auguſtus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him ſome of the Poliſh nobles who he feared were inclined to Staniſlaus his competitor; it was conferred alſo on the czar Peter the Great of Ruſſia. The preſent king inſtituted the "order of *St. Staniſlaus*," ſoon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of St. Staniſlaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red riband edged with white. The ſtar of the order is ſilver, and in the centre, is a cypher of S. A. R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex) encircled with the motto "*Premiando incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland of old, was poſſeſſed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Ruſs and Tartars. It was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 700, the people, through the oppreſſion of their petty chiefs, gave the ſupreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His poſterity failing, in the year 830, a peaſant, one Piaſtus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has been ſince elected king is called a Piaſt. From this period, for ſome centuries, we have no very certain records of the hiſtory of Poland. The title of duke was retained, till the year 999, when Boleſlaus aſſumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Pruſſia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleſlaus II. added Red Ruſſia to Poland, by marrying the heireſs of that duchy, anno, 1059. Jagello, who in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Chriſtian, but was at pains to bring over his ſubjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland, which gave ſuch influence to his poſterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preſerved in his family until the male line became extinct in Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in 1572. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the

the crown of Poland. Theſe were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had eſpouſed Maximilian's intereſt endeavoured once more to revive his pretenſions; but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chuſe a prince who might reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with ſome oppoſition from the Auſtrian faction, took the wiſeſt method to eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne, by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and of the royal houſe of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by eſtabliſhing a new militia, compoſed of the Coſſacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he beſtowed the Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John king of Sweden, by Catharine ſiſter of Sigiſmund II. for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have already ſeen in the hiſtory of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war enſued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigiſmund being ſecured in the throne of Poland, aſpired to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unſucceſsful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. At laſt a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Branuſberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1623, Sigiſmund died, and Uladiſlaus his ſon ſucceeded. This prince was ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swedes to reſtore all the Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on againſt the Coſſacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, who are naturally a brave people, became deſperate; and upon the ſucceſſion of John II. brother to Uladiſlaus, the Coſſac general Schmielinſki defeated the Poles in two great battles, and at laſt forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appears that, during the courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved as the worſt of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; but his nobility diſapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. While the jealouſy hereby occaſioned continued, the Ruſſians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolenſko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed moſt horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzick. The reſiſtance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-aſſemble, and their king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as the Poles; ſo that the Swedes, who were diſperſed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the ſame time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during

this expedition, that the Dutch and Engliſh protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the ſovereignty of Ducal Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the latter loſt Poland, of which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiou, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

During thoſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew very uneaſy with their king. Some of them were diſſatisfied with the conceſſions he had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had thrown off the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and ſome, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Caſimir, who very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of retirement and ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions increaſed every day, and that he himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germains, in France, enploying the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far from being deſpicable.

The moſt remote deſcendants of the ancient kings ending in John Caſimir, many foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles choſe for their king a private gentleman of little intereſt, and leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was deſcended from a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the ſultan. Notwithſtanding thoſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was in ſome meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and in 1676, he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland; but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the houſe of Auſtria, was ſo public-ſpirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and making a terrible ſlaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieſki returning to Poland, continued the war againſt the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the Sobieſki family. In the mean while, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger ſon prince Alexander Sobieſki, for which ſhe was driven from Warſaw to Dantzick. All of a ſudden, Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate, and after a

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ſham election, being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his intereſt, and pretended that he had been actually choſen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe ſeemed to acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, (who procured the advancement of Staniſlaus) and afterwards reſtored by the Czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the hiſtory of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and diſagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Staniſlaus, and were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural ſon prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, againſt the power of Ruſſia and the jealouſy of the Poles. Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to inſure the ſucceſſion of Poland to his ſon Auguſtus II. (or as he is called by ſome III.) This occaſioned a war, in which the French king maintained the intereſt of his father-in-law Staniſlaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a conſiderable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Auguſtus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he eſcaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in the hiſtory of Germany, mentioned the war between Auguſtus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Ruſſia and Auſtria, and his late Pruſſian majeſty. It is ſufficient to ſay, that though Auguſtus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to ſatisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely ſhelter, when his Pruſſian majeſty drove him from his capital and electorate. Auguſtus died at Dreſden, in 1763, upon which count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki was choſen king, by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus; though it is ſaid that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empreſs of Ruſſia. He is a man of abilities and addreſs; but, from various concurring cauſes, he has had the unhappineſs to ſee Poland, during his reign, a ſcene of deſolation and calamity. In 1766, two Poliſh gentlemen preſented a petition to the king, in the name of all the Proteſtant nobility, and in behalf alſo of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be re-inſtated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the ſame footing in every reſpect with the Roman catholic ſubjects of the kingdom. "The difference of ſentiments upon ſome points of religion among Chriſtians," ſaid they in their petition, "ought not to enter into any conſideration with regard to the employments of the ſtate. The different ſects of Chriſtians, although they differ in opinion among themſelves with reſpect to ſome points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their ſovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Chriſtian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, having always this principle in view, and without having any regard to the religion they profeſs, Chriſtian princes ought only to ſeek after thoſe whoſe merit and talents make them capable of ſerving their country properly." The king gave no anſwer at this time to the petition of the diſſidents; but the matter

was

was referred to the diet which was held the following year, when the miniſters of the courts of Ruſſia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, ſupported their pretenſions. The diet appeared to treat the complaints of the diſſidents with great moderation, which gave ſome flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Pruſſia appear to have prevented this: for that prince, though he openly profeſſed to be a zealous defender of the cauſe of the diſſidents, yet it was manifeſt from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Ruſſians in the affairs of Poland alſo gave a great diſguſt to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation run into confederacies formed in diſtinct provinces; the popiſh clergy were active in oppoſing the cauſe of the diſſidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the moſt cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confuſion, devaſtation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almoſt deſtroyed; many of the principal popiſh families retired into foreign ſtates with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Ruſſian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warſaw, that city had likewiſe exhibited a ſcene of plunder and maſſacre. To theſe complicated evils, were added, in the year 1770, that moſt dreadful ſcourge the peſtilence, which ſpread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in theſe provinces it is ſaid to have ſwept off 250,000 of the people. Meanwhile, ſome of the Poliſh confederates interceded with the Turks to aſſiſt them againſt their powerful oppreſſors; and a war enſued between the Ruſſians and the Turks on account of Poland. But it has been obſerved, that the conduct of the Grand Signior and of the Ottoman Porte towards the diſtreſſed Poles, were ſtrictly juſt and honourable, and the very reverſe of that of their Chriſtian, Catholic, and Apoſtolic neighbours *.

* In 1764, the empreſs of Ruſſia tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw an act of renunciation, ſigned with her own hand, and ſealed with the ſeal of the empire, wherein ſhe declares, "That ſhe did by no means arrogate either to herſelf, her heirs and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories, which were actually in poſſeſſion, or ſubject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every one who ſhould at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame." In the ſame year did the king of Pruſſia ſign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "that he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the ſame inſtrument he guarantees, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland againſt every power whatever. The empreſs-queen of Hungary, ſo late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable: that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him: that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of his dominions, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it."—From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a ſtate, means to annihilate thoſe liberties, ſeize upon thoſe rights, and appropriate thoſe revenues to their own uſe. Such is the faith of princes, the inſtability of human politics, and of human affairs!

On September 3d, 1771, an attempt was made by Kozinſki, an officer among the Poliſh confederates, and ſeveral others, to aſſaſſinate the king of Poland, in the ſtreets of Warſaw. His majeſty received two wounds on his head, one from a ball, and the other from a ſabre; notwithſtanding which he had the good fortune to eſcape with life, by Kozinſki's relenting, for which his own life was ſaved, and he now reſides in the papal territories, with an annual penſion from the king. Pulaſki, another of the conſpirators, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the American ſervice, and was killed in attacking the Britiſh lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Pruſſia, the emperor and empreſs-queen, and the empreſs of Ruſſia, had entered into an alliance to divide and diſmember the kingdom of Poland: though Pruſſia was formerly in a ſtate of vaſſalage to Poland, and the title of king of Pruſſia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Ruſſia alſo in the beginning of the 17th century ſaw its capital and throne poſſeſſed by the Poles, while Auſtria in 1683 was indebted to a king of Poland for the preſervation for its metropolis, and almoſt for its very exiſtence. Theſe three allied powers, acting in concert, ſet up their formal pretenſions to the reſpective diſtricts which they had allotted for and guarantied to each other: Poliſh or Weſtern Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburgh, for the king of Pruſſia; almoſt all the ſouth-eaſt parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich ſalt-works of the crown, for the empreſs-queen of Hungary and Bohemia *; and a large diſtrict of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empreſs of Ruſſia †. But though each of theſe powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them reſpectively, and publiſhed manifeſtos in juſtification of the meaſures which they had taken, yet as they were conſcious that the fallacies by which they ſupported their pretenſions were too groſs to impoſe upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not conſent unanimouſly to ſign a treaty for the ceding of thoſe provinces to them reſpectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered ſtate. In this extremity of diſtreſs, ſeveral of the Poliſh nobility proteſted againſt this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign ſtates, chuſing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiſcated, than be the inſtruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king of Poland was prevailed upon to ſign this act, and his example was followed by many his ſubjects.

As to the king of Pruſſia, his conduct in Poland was the moſt tyrannical and oppreſſive that can be conceived. It was in the year 1771 that

* The diſtrict claimed by Auſtria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right ſide of the Viſtula, from Sileſia above Sandomir to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoiſc, and Rubieſſow, to the Bog: from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Ruſſia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a ſtraight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia from Moldavia. This country is now incorporated with Auſtria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Ruſſian claims compriſe Poliſh Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotſk to the eaſt of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepſk, Miciſlaw and two portions of the palatinate of Minſk. This tract of land (Poliſh Livonia excepted) is ſituated in White Ruſſia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Polotſk and Mohilef.

his

his troops entered into Great Poland, and during the ſpace of that year he carried off from that province, and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the ſame year, an edict was publiſhed by his Pruſſian majeſty, commanding every perſon, under the ſevereſt penalties, and even corporal puniſhment, to take in payment for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, ſeventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this baſe money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to ſupply his army for two whole years, but to ſtock magazines in the country itſelf, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchaſe corn for their daily ſubſiſtence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commiſſaries refuſing to take the ſame coin they had paid. At the loweſt calculation he gained, by this maſterly and honeſt manœuvre, ſeven millions of dollars. Having ſtripped the country of money and proviſions, his next attempt was to thin it ſtill more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpoſe he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furniſh a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were ſo heavy, and exceeded at laſt their abilities ſo much, that the prieſts abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. Theſe exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken of the provinces uſurped. From theſe proceedings it would appear, that his Pruſſian majeſty knew no rights but his own; no pretenſions but thoſe of the houſe of Brandenburg; no other rule of juſtice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland has juſtly been conſidered as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe. The ſurpriſe of a town, the invaſion of an inſignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would ſome years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the deſtruction of a great kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonſtrated againſt the uſurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the ſenate there was a majority of SIX, but in the lower houſe, the aſſembly of nuncios, there was but one vote in favour of the meaſure, 54 againſt 53. This is a very alarming circumſtance, and ſhews that a moſt important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting attention with moſt of the ſtates of Europe. Our anceſtors might, perhaps, on ſome occaſions, diſcover rather more anxiety about preſerving the balance of power in Europe than was neceſſary: but it has been well remarked, that the idea of conſidering Europe as a vaſt commonwealth, of the ſeveral parts being diſtinct and ſeparate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping

keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the reſt, was great and liberal, and, though the reſult of barbariſm was founded upon the moſt enlarged principles of the wiſeſt policy. It appears to be owing to this ſyſtem, that this ſmall part of the weſtern world has acquired ſo aſtoniſhing a ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a ſimilar ſyſtem of policy, though formed upon a ſmaller ſcale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that ſyſtem.

Staniſlaus Auguſtus (late count Poniatowſki) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, reſided ſome time in London, and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

# SWITZERLAND.

## Situation and Extent.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 260 | between | 6 and 11 eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 100 | | 45 and 48 north latitude. |

Boundaries.] It is bounded by Alſace and Swabia in Germany, on the North; by the lake of Conſtance, Tirol, and Trent, on the Eaſt; by Italy, on the South; and by France, on the Weſt.

Divisions.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which ſtand in point of precedency as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Underwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Baſil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhauſen; 13. Appenzel.

The beſt account we have of the dimenſions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

| Switzerland. | Countries Names. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calviniſt | Berne | 2,346 | 111 | 87 | Berne |
| | Zurich | 728 | 34 | 33 | Zurich |
| | Schaffhauſen | 140 | 23 | 9 | Schaffhauſen |
| | Baſil | 240 | 21 | 18 | BASIL (47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Lon.) |
| Papiſts. | Lucerne | 460 | 33 | 35 | Lucerne |
| | Underwalden | 270 | 23 | 16 | Stantz |
| | Uri | 612 | 48 | 21 | Altorf |
| | Suiſſe | 250 | 27 | 13 | Suiſſe |
| | Fribourg | 370 | 24 | 21 | Fribourg |
| | Zug | 112 | 18 | 10 | Zug |
| | Soleure | 253 | 31 | 24 | Soleure, or Solothurn |
| Calviniſts and Papiſts. | Appenzel | 270 | 23 | 21 | Appenzel |
| | Glaris | 257 | 24 | 18 | Glaris |
| The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts, and Papiſts. | Baden, Bremgarten, Meilingen | 216 | 26 | 12 | Baden, Bremgarten, Meilingen |
| | Rheinthal | 40 | 20 | 5 | Rheineck |
| | Thurgau | 119 | 18 | 11 | Frowanfield |
| | Lugano, Locarno, Mendris, Maggia | 850 | 52 | 30 | Lugano, Locarno, Mendris, Maggia |
| | | 7,533 | | | |

| Allies of the Switzers. | Countries Names | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calviniſts | Griſons | 2,270 | 1.0 | 62 | Coire |
| Subjects of the Griſons. Calviniſts & Pap. | Chiavanna | 472 | 42 | 34 | Chiavanna |
| | Bormio and Valteline. | 360 | 27 | 19 | Sondrio |
| Calviniſts. | Tockenburg | 168 | 27 | 8 | Liechtenſteg |
| | Geneva | 160 | 13 | 11 | Geneva |
| | Neufchatel | 320 | 32 | 20 | Neufchatel |
| Papiſts. | Valais | 1,287 | 80 | 30 | Sion |
| | Baſle | 270 | 13 | 16 | Delſperg |
| | St. Gall | 144 | 20 | 10 | St. Gall |
| | | | | | Mu-hauſen, in Alſace, is alſo united to them. |
| | Total | 12,834 | | | |

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles) the froſts are conſequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with ſnow ſometimes all the year long. In ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons; on one ſide of thoſe mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the ſummer months in this charming country. It is ſubject to rains and tempeſts; for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected to ſupply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in large or ſmall cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and perſevering induſtry are more remarkably conſpicuous than in Switzerland. In paſſing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is ſtruck with admiration, to obſerve rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich paſture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the ſides of precipices ſo ſteep, that a horſe could not even mount them without great difficulty. In ſhort, the inhabitants ſeem to have ſurmounted every obſtruction which ſoil, ſituation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have ſpread fertility over various ſpots of the country, which nature ſeemed to have conſigned to everlaſting barrenneſs. The feet of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and paſture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, conſiſting almoſt entirely of barren and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are continually covered with ſnow or ice. The vallies between theſe icy and ſnowy mountains appear like ſo many ſmooth frozen lakes, and from them vaſt fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful ſpots beneath. In ſome parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildneſs to high cultivation; in others the tranſitions are very abrupt, and very ſtriking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and ſtudded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, paſtures which appear ſuſpended in the air, exhibit the moſt delightful landſcape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and ſnow. In ſhort, Switzerland abounds with the

the moſt picturesque ſcenes; and here are to be found ſome of the moſt ſublime exhibitions of nature, in her moſt awful and tremendous forms.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which riſes in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reuſs, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhone The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces ſheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and cheſnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and moſt of the cantons abound in timber. Beſides game, fiſh, and fowl, are alſo found, in ſome of the higher and more inacceſſible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois, whoſe activity in ſcouring along the ſteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both theſe animals is of ſo hot a nature, that the inhabitants of ſome of theſe mountains, who are much ſubject to pleuriſies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder. The fleſh of the chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewiſe found a ſpecies of hares, which in ſummer is ſaid to perfectly reſemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, ſo that they are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable among the ſnow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two ſpecies ever couple together. The white hare ſeldom quits his rocky reſidence.—Here are alſo yellow and white foxes, which in winter ſometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the beſt accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general ſimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are the moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the ſame rank of men in moſt other countries; a taſte for literature is very prevalent among thoſe who are in better circumſtances, and even among many of the loweſt rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conſpicuous in the Swiſs gentry. On the firſt entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but obſerve the air of content and ſatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanlineſs of the houſes, and of the people, is peculiarly ſtriking; and in all their manners behaviour, and dreſs, ſome ſtrong outlines may be traced, which diſtinguiſh this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppreſſion of deſpotic government. Even the Swiſs cottages convey the livelieſt image of cleanlineſs, eaſe, and ſimplicity, and cannot but ſtrongly impreſs upon the obſerver a moſt pleaſing conviction of the peaſant's happineſs. In ſome of the cantons each cottage has its little territory, conſiſting generally of a field or two of fine paſture ground, and frequently ſkirted with trees, and well ſupplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in moſt parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except

upon

upon particular occaſions. Silk, lace, and ſeveral other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in ſome of the cantons; and even the head-dreſſes of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are alſo ſtrictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loſes above ſix florins, which is about nine ſhillings of our money, incurs a conſiderable fine. Their diverſions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not waſted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leiſure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their underſtandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exerciſes, ſuch as running, wreſtling, throwing the hammer, and ſhooting both with the croſs-bow and the muſket.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided. Zuinglius was the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few ſpeculative points; ſo that Calviniſm may be ſaid to be the religion of the proteſtant Swiſſes. But this muſt be underſtood chiefly with reſpect to the mode of church government; for in ſome doctrinal points they are far from being univerſally Calviniſtical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry, prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the intereſts of civil liberty, their ſentiments on the ſubject of religious toleration are in general much leſs liberal.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſſes who border upon France ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whoſe name is ſo well known in all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent age have received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village* in particular is much eſteemed. M. Bonnet, and Meſſ. de Sauſſure and De Luc alſo deſerve to be mentioned with applauſe, and will be remembered till the Alps ſhall be no more.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains ſome valuable manuſcripts, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial curioſities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than twenty original pieces of Holbein: for one of which, repreſenting a dead Chriſt, a thouſand ducats have been offered. The other univerſities, which indeed are commonly only ſtyled colleges, as thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL } Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country preſents the traveller with a natural curioſity; ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one, two leagues from Friburgh. This was formed

formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, cieling, all cut out of the rock. At the famous paſs of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a ſolid rock near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The marcaſites, falſe diamonds, and other ſtones found in thoſe mountains, are juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of the country. The ruins of Cæſar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Leman, are ſtill diſcernible.—Many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boaſts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jeſuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts, antiques, and curioſities of all kinds. Near Roſiniere, is a famous ſpring which riſes in the midſt of a natural baſon of 12 ſquare feet—the force that acts upon it muſt be prodigious; after a great ſhower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its ſurface. Its temperature never varies, its ſurface is clear as cryſtal, and its depth unfathomable; probably the end of ſome ſubterraneous lake, that hath here found an iſſue for its waters.

CITIES.] Of theſe the moſt conſiderable is the city of Bern, ſtanding on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is ſaid, forms almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occaſion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arſenals, bridges, and public edifices. Baſil is accounted by ſome the capital of all Switzerland. It is ſituated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alſace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty ſtreets, and ſix market places. The town-houſe, which ſtands on the river Birſe, is ſupported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The ſituation of Baſil is pleaſing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is conſidered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far leſs conſiderable than Bern, but in the arſenal is ſhewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuſcript of excellent letters written by the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I ſhall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itſelf is an independent ſtate, and republic. This city is well built, and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is ſituated upon the afflux of the Rhone, from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contained a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; ſo that the proteſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, eſteem it a moſt delightful place.—But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the uſurpation of the Senate, hath divided the citizens into parties, and the late ſtruggle

of Patricians and Plebeians has been productive of the moſt ruinous conſequences. The city is now under the protection of France, or rather its magiſtrates, and council, the partizans of ariſtocracy; many of its valuable citizens have accordingly left the place, and ſought refuge and protection in Ireland and elſewhere.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, ſilk and painted cottons and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, to fabricate ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe are very complicated heads, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction, but thoſe of Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even thoſe ariſtocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real intereſts of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in deſpotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itſelf to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the baſis of affection, a ſyſtem of mutual defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or the ſtates, confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third are thoſe prefectures, which though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic; but when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is obſerved by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the beſt account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people. For whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates (which, of all others, are uſually the moſt tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the ſubject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children, ſeem to enſure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that ſince the firm and complete eſta-

bliſhment of their general confederacy, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no hoſtile commotions among themſelves, that were not very ſoon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy, renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Bern are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides thoſe in other banks.

The revenues ariſe, 1. From the profits of the demeſne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Cuſtoms and duties on merchandiſe; 4. The revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at a mark; furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter caſe, the government permits the enliſting volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

HISTORY.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous, uninviting ſituation, formed a better ſecurity for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the caſe at preſent. They continued long under little better than a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to double the hardſhips of the people; and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors, Greſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. One William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Greſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended to his (Greſler's) heart, if he had killed his ſon. Tell was condemned to priſon upon this; but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned by ſome noble patriots among them. Their meaſures were ſo juſt, and their courſe ſo intrepid, that they ſoon effected a union of ſeveral cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suiſſe, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itſelf in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Baſil and Scaffhauſen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate.

Neufchatel, ſince the year 1707, hath been under the dominion of the king of Pruſſia, but the inhabitants are free to ſerve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenues he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiſſes, I muſt refer the reader to the hiſtories of Europe.

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# SPAIN.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 700 | between | 10 and 3 eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 500 | | 36 and 44 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the Weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the Eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which ſeparate it from France, on the North; and by the ſtrait of the ſea at Gibraltar, on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Mediterranean.

Countries


C. Ortegal
C. de Penas
B A Y O F
B I S C A Y
C. Bellom
the Groyne
Ferrol
Coruna
Betanços
Lugo
Ribadeo
Oviedo
Aviles
Sanson
Santillana
Laredo
A S T U R I A
Mondonedo
Tambre R.
Muros
St Iago de Compostella
G A L I C I A
C. Finisterre
Ulla R.
Pontevedra
Orense
Minho R.
Tuy
R. Minho
Viana
Bayona
Braga
Ville de Conde
O Porto
Douro R.
Lamego
Chaves
Villa Real
TRALOSMONTES
ENTRE MINHO DOURO
Bragança
Zamora
Toro
Miranda
Leon
Astorga
Carrion
Palencia
Aguilar
Burgos
Medina de Rio Seco
Valladolid
Roa
Medina
Riaza
Olmedo
Segovia
C A S T I L L E O L E O N
Feira
Castrodaõro
Viseu
Mira
Mondego R.
Almeida
Guarda
Pinhel
Alva R.
Douro R.
Tormes R.
Salamanca
Sangrada
Alva
Avila
Uzeda
Escurial
Madrid
Escalona
Aranjuez
B E I R A
Coimbra
Huarco
Soure
Leira
Berlenga
Batalha
Tomar
Abrantes
Niza
Santarem
Mafra
Mugem
Montargil
Portalegre
Idanha
Castello Branco
Plazencia
Coria
Montesanto
Talavera
Almaraz
Tagus R.
Toledo
Talavera la vega
Toledo
Mta Consuegra
Truxillo
Guadalupe
Calatrava
C A S T I L L E
LISBON
Tagus or Tejo R.
Setuval
Estremos
Elvas
Merida
Medellin
Mona
Evora
Badajos
Guadiana R.
Alcamillo
Duenas
Albenoya
Alcacer
Monforte
Feria
Zuzoar
Cusna
Anjudar
Melida
Beja
Serpa
Zafra
Casalla
Cordova
Adarmuz
Jaen
Sines
Odemira
Mertola
Almodovar
Xerez
Lerena
Puebla
Montilla
Priego
Granada
Xenil R.
Seville
Lusena
Osuna
Antequera
Tenir
Malaga
Ronda
Marbella
Almuneca
Cadiz
St Lucar
Arcos
Medina Sidonia
Estepona
Gibraltar
Tarifa
Straits of Gibraltar
Guadalquivir or Turio R.
Guadiana R.
Tavira
Cabo de Sta Maria
Cabo de St Vincent
Sagres
Lagos
Silves
Faro
ALGARVA
ENTRE TEJO GUADIANA
P O R T U G A L
E S T R E M A D U R A
A N D A L U S I A
G R A N A D A
M E D
Degrees West 8 fr. London 7 6 5


FRANCE
Meridian of London
British Statute Miles
20 60 100
Bayonne
Adour R.
Midour R.
Fontarabie
St Sebastian
St Jean de Luz
Pau
St Bertrand
Narbonne
Oleron
Pyrenean Mountains
Perpignan
Pampelona
NAVARRE
Vitoria
Sanguessa
Jaca
Estella
Lobera
Campo
Urgel
Cambredon
Roses
Colioure
Corus
Girone R.
Tremp
Stolsona
Cordona
Palamos
Biel R.
Huesca
Tudella
Balbastro
Tarragona
Soria
Borja
Saragosa
Fraga
Lerida
Balaguer
Cervera
CATALONIA
Blanes
Barcelona
Monblanc
Tobregat R.
Osma
Almazon
Calatajud
Caspe
Tarragona
C. Salou
Daroca
Brihuega
Molina
Montalvan
Morella
Tortosa
Ebro R.
Tagus R.
Albarazin
St Mateo
Peniscola
Formentor C.
Peros
Priego
Terrel
Huete
Una
Cuenca
Monte Colibre
Segorbe
Villa real
Dragonera
MAJORCA
Majorca
Valera
Xucar R.
Guadalaviar R.
Murviedro
Valencia
Pt Yvica
Belmonte
Alzira
YVICA
Cabrera
Xenquena
Xativa
Gandia
Yvica
Almanza
Albacete
Denia
C. Martin
Formentera
Alcaraz
Chinchilla
Villena
Castuilla
Altea
Tobarra
Elda
Alicant
MURCIA
Orihuela
Segura R.
Caravaca
Hornillo
Murcia
Lorca
Guescar
Cartagena
C. de Palos
Almazaron
Baza
Portilla
Vera
Almeria
Adra
St Pedro
C. de Gates
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.

| Countries Names. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Spain. | | | | | |
| | Caſtile, New | 27,840 | 220 | 180 | MADRID { N. Lat 40-30. W. Lon. 4-15. |
| | Anda'uſia | 16,500 | 273 | 13 | Seville |
| | Caſtile, Old | 14,400 | 193 | 140 | Burgos |
| | Arragon | 13,818 | 190 | 103 | Saragoſſa |
| | Eſtremadura | 12,600 | 180 | 123 | Badajos |
| | Galicia | 12,000 | 165 | 120 | Compoſtella |
| | Leon | 11,200 | 167 | 96 | Leon |
| | Catalonia | 9000 | 172 | 110 | Barcelona |
| | Granada | 8100 | 200 | 43 | Granada |
| | Valencia | 6800 | 18 | 75 | Valencia |
| | Biſcay and Ipuſcoa | 4760 | 140 | 55 | Bilboa |
| | Aſturia | 4600 | 124 | 55 | Oviedo |
| | Murcia | 3600 | 8 | 65 | Murcia |
| | Upper Navarre | 3000 | 92 | 45 | Pampeluna |
| In the Mediterranean. | Majorca I. | 1400 | 58 | 40 | Majorca |
| | Yvica I. | 625 | 37 | 25 | Yvica |
| | Minorca | 520 | 41 | 20 | Citadella |
| | Total— | 150,763 | | | |

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whoſe ancient hiſtory, at leaſt the interior part of it, we know leſs than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſively hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes, that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; though thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller ſhiver.

The ſoil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately found ſome ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe of tillage, through their indolence; the cauſes of which I ſhall explain afterwards. It produces in many places, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. Her wines, eſpecially her ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners; and Dr. Buſching ſays, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export yearly wines and raiſins to the amount of 268,759l. ſterling. Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated, ground; but no country perhaps, maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of its ſoil. Even ſugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it

yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

This country is much infeſted with locuſts; and Mr. Dillon obſerves, that in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine aſſailed the fruitful provinces of Andaluſia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have ſometimes appeared in the air in ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky; the clear atmoſphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the fineſt ſummer day of Eſtremadura been rendered more diſmal than the winter of Holland. Their ſenſe of ſmelling is ſo delicate, that they can diſcover a corn field, or a garden, at a conſiderable diſtance; and which they will ravage almoſt in an inſtant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and obſervation, might deſtroy the eggs of theſe formidable inſects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

The waters (eſpecially thoſe that are medicinal) of Spain are little known; but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have ſuch healing qualities, that they are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and the incloſing, and encouraging a reſort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, eſpecially at Alhamar in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous: the chief, and the higheſt, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France, and the road over the paſs that ſeparates Rouſſillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the ſtrength of 30 men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horſes now do with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the moſt ſingular in the world, for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-ſerrado, or Mount Scie, words which ſignify a cut, or ſawed mountain; and is ſo called from its ſingular and extraordinary form; for it is ſo broken and divided, and ſo crowned with an infinite number of ſpiring cones, or pine heads, that it

it has the appearance, at a diſtant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, to be evidently the production of the God of nature. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow is, never to forſake it. When the mountain is firſt ſeen at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain; and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height*. As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though not far diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montſerrat, to which pilgrims reſort from the fartheſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the ſick received into the hoſpital. Sometimes, on particular feſtivals, ſeven thouſand perſons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reaſonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for ſaying maſs, water ciſterns, and moſt of them little gardens. The inhabitants of one of theſe hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the ſacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine ſervice dine together. They meet alſo at this hermitage, on the days of the ſaints to which their ſeveral hermitages are dedicated, to ſay maſs, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very ſolitary and recluſe manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abſtinence, nor do they ever eat fleſh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, leſt their attention ſhould be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of profeſſed monks there, is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of ſinging boys 25, beſides phyſician, ſurgeon, and ſervants. Mr. Thickneſſe, who has publiſhed a very particular deſcription of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often ſaw from his habitation the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca, and Ivica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] Theſe are the Duero, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Liſbon; the Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, riſes in Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediterranean near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand, and petrifying it in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happens to fall in, and reſt upon another,

* Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet, and obſerves that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary ſitting at the foot of a rock, half cut through by a ſaw.

they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dies of the ſame hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whoſe fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature: for when it paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean ſea ſix leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fiſhes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne,) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valencia, Roſes, Majorca in that iſland, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the iſland of Minorca. The ſtrait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the ſame kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadſtones, jacinths, turquois ſtones, quickſilver, copper, lead, ſulphur, alum, calamine, cryſtal, marbles of ſeveral kinds, porphyry, the fineſt jaſper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethiſts, are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that of Damaſcus, furniſhes the beſt arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a vaſt revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection.—Even to this day, Spaniſh gun barrels, and ſwords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongſt the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic and agricultural utenſils were of that metal. Theſe mines have now diſappeared; but whether by their being exhauſted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot ſay; though the latter cauſe ſeems to be the moſt probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia, are thought to be the handſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time very fleet and ſerviceable. The king does all he can to monopolize the fineſt breeds for his own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes likewiſe mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have ſo much ferocity, that their bull-feaſts were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now diſuſed. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey that peſter Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } Spain, formerly the moſt populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both

both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulſion of that people. The preſent inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to 9,250,000, ſo that England is three times as populous as Spain, conſidering its extent.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkin, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it quite, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This is the true reaſon why many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years paſt, we know of no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurpriſing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh between the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which are not to be put on the ſame footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations.—Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them, embroiled his maſter with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

The common people who live on the coaſts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an aſſemblage of

Jews,

Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great ſucceſs; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice. There are about 40,000 gypſies, and who, beſides their fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the ſmall towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country: "The Catalans appear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians, a more ſullen, ſedate race, better adapted to the occupations of huſbandmen, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontadoes of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are perhaps the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation; the Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient ſimplicity of manner; both are of a firm determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more reſembling a colony of republicans than a province of an abſolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of an hardly earned ſubſiſtence."

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances; for though it muſt be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons, they are commonly ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ vaſt art in ſupplying the defects of nature.—If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather diminiſh than increaſe their beauty, eſpecially when they are turned of 25. Their indiſcriminate uſe of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly diſfigures their complexions, and ſhrivels their ſkin. It is at the ſame time univerſally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have ſaid, it is more than probable that the vaſt pains taken by the government of Spain, may at laſt eradicate thoſe cuſtoms and habits among the Spaniards that ſeem ſo ridiculous to foreigners. They are univerſally known to have refined notions and excellent ſenſe; and this, if improved by ſtudy and travelling, which they now ſtand in great need of, would render them ſuperior to the French themſelves. Their ſlow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to ſuch a degree, that during the two laſt wars, they were found to be as quick both in reſolving and executing, if not more ſo than their enemies. Their ſecrecy, conſtancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in ſeveral of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andaluſia, the common people have, for ſome time, aſſiduouſly applied themſelves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, their ſobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup, in bed; their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, ſallad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs,

are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine: and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a trap-door above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhewing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf, which is attended with circumſtances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting bull-fights: and it is ſaid that even the pooreſt inhabitants of the ſmalleſt villages will often club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon aſſes for want of horſes.

RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romiſh religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now greatly leſſened there, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, a tribunal diſgraceful to human nature; but though diſuſed, it is not abrogated; only the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority: it is ſtill in force againſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh pretended converts. The Spaniards embrace and practiſe the Roman Catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *Moſt Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors above the reſt of the Catholic world hath loſt much of its activity, and ſeems nearly extinguiſhed, and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has alſo been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion, which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20, 00 ſecular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhopricks, and forty-ſix biſhopricks. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtyled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per annum: but the Spaniſh court hath now many ways of leſſening the revenues of the church, as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, &c. and premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture. This archbiſhoprick pays annually 15000 ducats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions, and it is aſſerted, that there is not a biſhoprick in Spain but hath ſome body or other quartered upon it, and the ſecond rate benefices are believed to be in the ſame predicament. Out of the rich

ca-

canonries and prebends are taken the penſions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is at preſent a moſt majeſtic and expreſſive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who underſtand it the beſt, prize it the moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlations; and Cervantes ſpeaks almoſt as aukward Engliſh as Shakſpeare does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre nueſtro, que eſtas en el cielo, ſanctificado ſe el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſien la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nos nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which prevents them from making that progreſs in the polite arts which they otherwiſe would: but the greateſt impediment to literature in Spain, is the deſpotic nature of its government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. Such was the gloom of the Auſtrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid, in 1549, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. His ſatire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his country by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in priſon for debt, when he compoſed the firſt part of his hiſtory, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous ſatiriſts.

The viſions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humorous and ſatirical pieces, having been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the beſt writers of his age, excelling equally in verſe and in proſe. Beſides his merit as a poet, he was well verſed in the oriental languages, and poſſeſſed great erudition. His works are compriſed in three volumes, 4to. two of which conſiſt of poetry, and the third of pieces in proſe. As a poet he excelled both in the ſerious and burleſque ſtyle, and was happy in a turn of humour ſimilar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had ſettled themſelves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental ſtyle of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themſelves much to Roman literature: but Alvaro of Cordova com-

plains, that in his time, the Spaniards had ſo totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult even amongſt a thouſand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter.—The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then ſo great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compoſe verſes with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themſelves. About this time the Spaniſh Jews made a conſiderable figure in literature, which was promoted by maſters from Babylon, where they had acadamies ſupported by themſelves. In the year 967 Rabbi Moſes, and his ſon Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were ſold as ſlaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who eſtabliſhed a ſchool in that city, of which Rabbi Moſes was appointed the head: that learned Jew was, however, deſirous of returning back to his own country; but the Mooriſh king of Cordova would not give his conſent, rejoicing that his Hebrew ſubjects had maſters of their own religion at home, without being under the neceſſity of receiving them from a foreign univerſity, and every indulgence was granted them with reſpect to their worſhip. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college over which he had preſided was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets iſſued forth, who have been noted by various learned writers. The Spaniſh Jews had alſo flouriſhing ſchools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, and from hence aroſe the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of ſpeech, that have crept into the Caſtilian language, and form a conſpicuous part of its phraſeology. To theſe Jews the Spaniſh language is indebted for a curious verſion of the Hebrew books of the Old Teſtament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spaniſh letter.

The Spaniſh writers alſo boaſt of their Troubadours as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1431, was the author of that famous work the *Arte de la Gaya Scientia*, which compreheuds a ſyſtem of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, beſides deſcribing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions.—That nobleman was alſo the author of a tranſlation of the Æneid of Virgil into Spaniſh verſe. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was alſo much celebrated as a poet in his own time: his poems have paſſed through a variety of editions, the firſt of which was printed at Saragoſſa in 1515. Juan de la Encina was alſo a poet of conſiderable merit: he tranſlated ſome of the Latin poems in Spaniſh, and publiſhed a piece on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragoſſa in 1516. Boſcan, Ercilla, Villegas, and other Spaniſh poets, alſo obtained great reputation in their own country. But the moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakſpeare. He poſſeſſed an imagination aſtoniſhingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he diſregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taſte of the age than to the rules of criticiſm. His lyric compoſitions, and fugitive pieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes, beſides his dramatic works, which make twenty-ſix volumes more; excluſive of four hundred ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was alſo a dramatic writer of conſiderable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote,

was

was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly de Solis, have ſhewn great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen.—Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay great ingenuity, very extenſive reading, and uncommon liberality of ſentiment, eſpecially when his ſituation and country are conſidered. Many of his pieces have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes, 8vo. Don Franciſco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a diſſertation on the Phœnician language, may be placed in the firſt line of Spaniſh literati. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amuſing and inſtructive. If it ſhould happen the Spaniards could diſengage themſelves from their abſtracted metaphyſical turn of thinking, and from their preſent tyrannical form of government, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At preſent, it ſeems, that the common education of an Engliſh gentleman would conſtitute a man of learning in Spain, and ſhould he underſtand Greek, he would be quite a phænomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatiſe on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic to the concluſion of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Amongſt the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were Velaſques, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke, Ribeira, and Claudio Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Moſt of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The reſt are, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valadolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 152 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, ſaid to be one of the greateſt curioſities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aiſles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a large

town,

town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768 out of the ruins of a decayed one that had exiſted 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almoſt entire, well proportioned and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) deſtroyed by Hannibal, are ſome Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact ſemicircle about 82 yards diameter, ſome of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 perſons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Mooriſh antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the moſt entire, as well as the moſt ſtately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Grenada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone; the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and ceilings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered with various Arabic ſentences. The moſt curious place within, that perhaps exiſts in Europe. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls, floor, and ceilings of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Granada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain; ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part; but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is ſaid to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory at Madrid, was opened to the public by his majeſty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beſides being ſhewn privately to ſtrangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious ſtones, marbles, ores, &c is very perfect; bnt the collection of birds and beaſts at preſent is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spaniſh American colonies. Here is alſo a curious collection of vaſes, baſons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental

mental pieces of the fineſt agates, amethyſts, rock cryſtals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, ſet with cameos, intaglios, &c. in an elegant taſte, and of very fine workmanſhip, ſaid to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet alſo contains ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain is the cave called St Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactitæ, of a whitiſh colour, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increaſe in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the town of St Roque and Algeſiras, and the Alpuxarra mountains, mount Abyla on the African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coaſt.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only ſurrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and lighted, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The houſes of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhew, conveniency being little conſidered: thus you will paſs through uſually two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beſides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions; but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor newſpaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city; it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience-chamber eſpecially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered with gold. Ornamented alſo with 12 looking-glaſſes made at St. Ildefonſo, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marbles. The other royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe places are the Buen Retiro (now ſtripped of all its beſt pictures and furniture), Caſa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonſo.

A late traveller has repreſented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent.

Each

Each of thoſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm-trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which renders the ſhade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreaſt, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. Between thoſe alleys there are thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds, and thouſands of deer and wild-boars wander there at large, beſides numberleſs hares, rabbits, pheaſants, partridges, and ſeveral other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly ſurrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleaſant, adorned with fountains and ſtatues, and it alſo contains a vaſt variety of the moſt beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaiſtered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſtories high, and the garden front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a ſuite. The gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the ſea, which ſupplies the fountains: this reſervoir is furniſhed from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far ſurpaſs thoſe at Verſailles. The great entry of the palace is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Verſailles, and with a large iron palliſade. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains: the baſons are of white marble, and the ſtatues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens are in the formal French ſtyle, but ornamented with ſixty-one very fine marble ſtatues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaden vaſes gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial; and the natives ſay, perhaps with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any other palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizeable quarto volume, and it is ſaid, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 366, and the apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other curious ſtones, ſurpaſſing all imagination. The Spaniards ſay, that this building, beſides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes, beſides large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics, noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 120000l. The mauſoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet diameter, incruſted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on

ſuch an utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king reſides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long ſquare of 640 feet by 580. The height to the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors; but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-pieces of architecture, but forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt however be confeſſed, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion here, are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the ſtraits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh, in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there which they could not reclaim from the captors. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houſes lofty with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the ſea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finiſhed. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconſiderable place; ſtreets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conſpicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquiſition and of the biſhops are extenſive and well ſituated. The cathedral was formerly a moſque, divided into ſeventeen ailes by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver candleſticks coſt 850l. a piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3500l. per ann. but as the biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſeſſed of, eſcheates to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The ſhape is circular, and the walls ſeem of Mooriſh conſtruction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The ſuburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic caſtle, where, in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and ſilk which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious ſteeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This ſteeple is reckoned one of the greateſt curioſities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London, but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York minſter for lightneſs, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The firſt clock made in the kingdom was ſet up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the preſence of king Henry III. The proſpect of the country round this city, beheld from the ſteeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona,

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, ſaid to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houſes, is ſituated on the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain; the houſes are lofty and plain, and the ſtreets well lighted, and paved. The citadel is ſtrong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the ſiege they ſuſtained in 1714 againſt a formidable army, when deſerted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly 150,000, and they ſupply Spain with moſt of the clothing and arms for the troops. A ſingular cuſtom prevails among them on the 1ſt of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from houſe to houſe to eat cheſnuts, believing that for every cheſnut they ſwallow, with proper faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The ſtreets are crooked and narrow, and not paved, the houſes ill built and filthy, and moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every dreſs ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbiſhopric is one of the beſt in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. ſterling a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but very few good ſtreets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare ſouth-weſt of the town, with 20 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the ſea. When Mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh criminals, and 600 Barbary ſlaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were ſent there, deſerved indeed exemplary puniſhments.

Granada ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Aſhambra crowns the double ſummit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants; the ſtreets are now filthy, and the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade loſt. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned uſeful, the ſurplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre, for bull feaſts, is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain, and the environs of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabel, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river; for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, and the ſtreets well paved and level; and the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure, which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and extenſive commerce than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great abundance the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford thoſe luſcious grapes, which gave ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Mooriſh caſtle on the

point of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are narrow, and the moſt remarkable building in it is a ſtupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The biſhops income is 16,cool. ſterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, but on three hills and two vallies, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, one of two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the kings of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo-relievo, among which are thoſe of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the moſt ancient cities in Spain, and during ſeveral centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees ſtripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almoſt entirely deſerted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part ſpent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thouſands that are left, and aſſiſts, in ſome degree, thoſe ſmall manufactures of ſword blades and ſilk-ſtuffs that are eſtabliſhed in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor and mean, and the ſtreets very ſteep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Caſtile, but now in obſcurity. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures of the Gothic kind, now in Europe: its form is exactly the ſame as that of York minſter, and on the eaſt end is an octagon building exactly like the chapter houſe at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, is at preſent in poſſeſſion of Great Britain. It was taken from the Spaniards by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under the command of ſir George Rooke, in 1704; and after many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been ſince made to wreſt it from England, but without ſucceſs: the laſt war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon, to the great loſs and diſgrace of the aſſailants: though it muſt be granted, the place is by nature almoſt impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raiſed, and ſold, to be diſtributed among the garriſon. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the paſſage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy nor ſtorms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The ſtraits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which

ſets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the ſtemming of it a briſk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the laſt ſiege was totally deſtroyed by the enemies bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is acceſſible on the land ſide only by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible that way. It has but two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this Iſthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country behind them: notwithſtanding which they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garriſon is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces ſcarcely any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta, on the oppoſite coaſt of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing thoſe abuſes which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magiſtrates.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to ſay. Minorca, which was taken by the Engliſh in 1738, was re-taken by the Spaniards the laſt war, and is now become a Spaniſh iſland again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themſelves, make gold and ſilver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither (ſays Mr. Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce) other European nations ſend their merchandiſe, to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it, coloured) under the names of Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have their agents and correſpondents, and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtorehouſes and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandiſe exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandiſe ſent thither would yield a great revenue, (and conſequently the profits of merchants and their agents would ſink), were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties.

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly of ſilk, wool, copper, and hardware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandiſe. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches ſhould belong to the Spa-

niards, rather than to any active European nation: but I ſhall have occaſion to touch on this ſubject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country is in a great degree the reſult of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, eſpecially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than that of England, are now aboliſhed; but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution are ſtill diſcernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king

The privy-council, which is compoſed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cogniſance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences, are thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within 15 miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem of itſelf, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, and twenty-two counſellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years; but they are thought ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Gran, and Muſulquivir, on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

REVENUE.] The revenues ariſing to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000l. ſterling, though ſome ſay eight; and they form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. His American income, it is true, is immenſe, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in caſe of a war, or any public emergency, to ſequeſter into his own hands great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects, who never complain, becauſe they are always punctually repaid with intereſt. The finances of his preſent catholic majeſty are in excellent

excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but in case of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependance of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expence to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds 70 ships of the line. All along the coast of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invation.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. } Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about 32. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children, of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants or infantas, that is children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile: and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions gules for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The "Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it, hath many French and Italian nobility: there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of *St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand-master, but the office of both was given by pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-masters in their respective dominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the "Order of *Calatrava*," first instituted by Sancho, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here

began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and poſſeſſions were ſo conſiderable as to excite the jealouſy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the office of grand-maſter, were annexed by pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*," derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief ſeat of the order, they aſſumed the name of Knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aſide the old device of a pear-tree. This order is highly eſteemed, and conferred only on perſons of ancient and illuſtrious families. The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy*," is ſaid to have been inſtituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was deſigned for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large ſums of money. It was at firſt confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it. This order poſſeſſes conſiderable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Monteſa*," was inſtituted at Valencia, at the cloſe of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their poſſeſſions. Their chief ſeat being the town of Monteſa, the order from thence derived its name, and choſe St. George for patron. In the year 1771, the preſent king inſtituted after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is, a ſtar of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin Mary, veſtments white and blue. On the reverſe, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti & Merito*. None but perſons of noble deſcent can belong to this order.

HISTORY OF SPAIN.] Spain was probably firſt peopled by the Celtæ from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous, or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom between them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became the maſters.

Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the ſeventh century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſs the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and eſtabliſh themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Aſturia, about the year 730. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their co-temporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept poſſeſſion of the throne near 300 years. Learning flouriſhed in Spain, while the reſt of Europe was buried

buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Mooriſh princes by degrees waxed weak and effeminate, and their chief miniſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars continued, which at laſt over-turned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent ſovereign. Now, every adventurer was entiled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain at laſt was divided into 12 or 14 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella the heireſs, and afterwards queen, of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who would not be converts to the Chriſtian faith, to the number of 170,000 families. I ſhall, in their proper places, mention the vaſt acquiſitions made at this time to Spain by the diſcovery of America, and the firſt expeditions of the Portugueſe to the Eaſt-Indies, by the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but the ſucceſſes of both nations were attended with diſagreeable conſequences.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the Popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafe-guard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella, in the year 1516. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He alſo reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, the withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude*.

Agreeably

* Charles, of all his vaſt poſſeſſions, reſerved nothing for himſelf but an annual penſion of 100,000 crowns; and choſe for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a ſmall brook, and ſurrounded by riſing grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave ſtrict orders, that the ſtyle of the building which he erected there, ſhould be ſuch as ſuited his preſent ſituation, rather than his former dignity. It conſiſted only of ſix rooms, four of them in the form of friars cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet ſquare, were hung with brown cloth, and furniſhed in the moſt ſimple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one ſide into a garden, of which Charles himſelf had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he propoſed to cultivate with his own hands

Agreeably to this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſion in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the Empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unſucceſsful war with that princeſs, his tyranny and perſecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned, in the hiſtory of thoſe countries.

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hands. After ſpending ſome time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he ſet out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his ſon, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and laſt farewel of Philip and his attendants, he ſet out, on the 17th of September 1556, under convoy of a large fleet of Spaniſh, Flemiſh, and Engliſh ſhips. As ſoon as he landed in Spain, he fell proſtrate on the ground; and conſidering himſelf now as dead to the world, he kiſſed the earth, and ſaid, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spaniſh nobility paid their court to him as he paſſed along to the place of his retreat; but they were ſo few in number, and their attendance was ſo negligent that Charles obſerved it, and felt, for the firſt time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his ſon's ingratitude; who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ſome weeks on the road, before he paid him the firſt moiety of that ſmall portion, which was all that he had reſerved of ſo many kingdoms. At laſt the money was paid; and Charles, having diſmiſſed a great number of his domeſtics, whoſe attendance he thought would be ſuperfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domeſtics only. Here he buried in ſolitude, and ſilence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all thoſe vaſt projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe; filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being ſubjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete ſatisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political tranſactions of the princes of Europe, he reſtrained his curioſity even from any enquiry concerning them; and he ſeemed to view the buſy ſcene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference ariſing from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleaſing reflection of having diſengaged himſelf from its cares.

New amuſements and new objects now occupied his mind; ſometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; ſometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horſe, the only one that he kept, attended by a ſingle ſervant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who reſided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himſelf in ſtudying the principles, and in forming curious works of mechaniſm, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the conſtruction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is ſaid, with a mixture of ſurpriſe and regret, on his own folly, in having beſtowed ſo much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a preciſe uniformity of ſentiment concerning the intricate and myſterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years retirement, he was ſeized with a fever, which carried him off in the 59th year of his age.

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In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian, about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal aſſerted a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza by the title of John IV. upon their throne, and ever ſince, Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, in virtue of his predeceſſors will, by the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the war by the ſhameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics (for in his wars to ſupport his grandſon, as we have already obſerved, he was almoſt ruined), accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his ſon Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their ſovereign, through the oppreſſion of the Imperialiſts.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuſes, and wanted to promote the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without iſſue, through melancholy for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples and the two Sicilies, now the preſent king of Spain, ſon to Philip V. by his wife, the princeſs of Parma.

He was ſo warmly attached to the family compact of the houſe of Bourbon, that two years after his acceſſion, he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate fleets. Notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, their miniſtry thought proper haſtily to conclude a peace, in conſequence of which the Havannah was reſtored to Spain. In 1775 an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers, by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000 and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers; but were diſgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take

take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy it, but after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire without doing it much injury.

When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. In particular, the Spaniards cloſely beſieged Gibraltar, both by ſea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortreſs ſhould be poſſeſſed by the Engliſh. Other military and naval operations alſo took place between Spain and Great Britain, which have been noticed in the Hiſtory of England, but peace hath ſince been concluded, and we hope happily, between the two nations.

His preſent catholic majeſty does all he can to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their ancient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned ſo dangerous an inſurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an inſtance of the neceſſity that even deſpotic princes are under of paying ſome attention to the inclinations of their ſubjects.

Charles III. king of Spain, was born in 1716, ſucceeded to the throne in 1759; and has iſſue by his late queen:

1. Maria-Joſepha, born 1744.

2. Maria-Louiſa, born 1745, married 1765, to the archduke Leopold of Auſtria, great duke of Tuſcany, and brother to the preſent emperor of Germany.

3. Philip-Anthony, duke of Calabria, born 1747, declared incapable of ſucceeding to the throne, on account of an invincible weakneſs of underſtanding.

4. Charles-Anthony, prince of Aſturias, born in 1748, married 1765, to Louiſa Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma.

5. Ferdinand-Anthony, king of Naples, born in 1751, married 1768, to the archducheſs Mary-Caroline-Louiſa, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany.

6. Gabriel-Anthony, born in 1752, grand-prior of the kingdom of Spain.

7. Athony-Paſcal, born 1755.

8. Francis-Xavier, born 1757.

The king's brother Don Lewis, is a cardinal and archbiſhop of Toledo.

# PORTUGAL.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 300 | between | 37 and 42 | North latitude. |
| Breadth 100 | | 7 and 10 | Weſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and Eaſt, and on the South and Weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called in the Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the north, middle and ſouth provinces.

| | Provinces. | Chief towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The North Diviſion contains | Entre Minho | Braga | 6814 |
| | Duro and | Oporto and Viana | |
| | Tralos Montes | Miranda and Villa Real | |
| The Middle Diviſions contains | Beira | Coimbra | 12640 |
| | | Guarda Caſtel Rodrigo | |
| | | LISBON 38-42 N. lat. 8-53 W. lon. | |
| | Eſtramadura | St. Ubes, and Leira. | |
| The South Diviſion contains | Entre Tago | Ebora, or Evora | 8397 |
| | Guardiana | Portalegre, Elvas, Beja | |
| | Alentejo | Legos | |
| | Algarva | Faro, Tavora, and Silves. | |

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo highly flavoured. The Portugueſe wines, when old and genuine, are eſteemed to be very friendly to the human conſtitution, and ſafe to drink*. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre near Liſbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſearching as that of Spain, being refreſhed from the ſea-breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are thoſe which divide

* The port wines are made in the diſtrict round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is conſumed under that name in the Britiſh dominions only. The merchants in this city have very ſpacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is ſaid that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

Algarva,

Algarva from Alentejo; thoſe of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portugueſe rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden ſand. Portugal contains ſeveral roaring lakes and ſprings; ſome of them are abſorbent even of the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; ſome, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medical and ſanative; and ſome hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarva. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are ſure, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 pariſhes, and 1,742,230 lay perſons (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium), beſides above 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

The modern Portugueſe retain nothing of that adventurous enterpriſing ſpirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. They have, ever ſince the houſe of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill remaining among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Portugueſe are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more ſtate than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueſe, by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the intereſt of their own country, is now ſo much encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habit and cuſtoms they imitate, only the quality affect to be more gaily and richly dreſſed. The Portugueſe ladies are thin and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They are eſteemed to be generous, modeſt,

deſt, and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much aukwardneſs and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, ſit always croſs-legged on the ground.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is popery in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely on the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country: all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increaſed at the expence of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueſe language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, ſeia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos ceos, commo na terra. O paoneſſa de cadadia, dano lo oei neſtro dia E perdoa nos ſenhor, as noſſos dividas, aſſi como nos perdoamos a nos noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueſe themſelves, who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance. It is univerſally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education.—The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world beſides, about the middle of the ſixteenth century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had fifty profeſſors: but it has been lately put under ſome new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Liſbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the ſciences. All the books that did belong to the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, which compoſe a very large library. The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here is alſo a college where young gentlemen are educated in the ſcience of engineering, and when qualified get commiſſions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the Mooriſh

Mooriſh taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpreſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch, is probably one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To theſe curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt diamond (which was found in Braſil), that ever was perhaps ſeen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which alſo ſet the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints day, 1755. It ſtill contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its ſituation (riſing from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent) renders its appearance at once delightful and ſuperb, and it is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. All that part of the city that was demoliſhed by the earthquake, is planned out in the moſt regular and commodious form. Some large ſquares and many ſtreets are already built. The ſtreets form right angles, and are broad and ſpacious. The houſes are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white ſtone, make a beautiful appearance. The ſecond city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet, to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe, within theſe ſeven or eight years, have taken a ſurpriſing turn in Portugal. The miniſtry have projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of as unjuſt and oppreſſive, and inconſiſtent with the privileges which the Britiſh merchants formerly enjoyed by the moſt ſolemn treaties.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt and fruits, and moſt of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and ſome coarſe ſilk, and woollen, with a variety of ſtraw work, and are excellent in preſerving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves of little ſolid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engroſs all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Braſil; her ivory, ebony, ſpices, and drugs of Africa and Eaſt India; in exchange for the almoſt numberleſs manufactures, and the vaſt quantity of corn and ſalt fiſh, ſupplied by thoſe European nations, and by the Engliſh North American colonies.

The Portugueſe foreign ſettlements are, however, not only of immenſe value, but vaſtly improveable: Braſil, the iſles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt

weſt coaſts of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, and their South American ſettlements.

What the value of theſe may be, is unknown perhaps to themſelves; but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold ſent from Braſil, amounts annually to 300,000l. ſterling, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping the Portugueſe have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade, and a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute; but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes or ſtates, conſiſting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is, that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regulation, with regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future diſputes on that account.

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa da Supplicaçao is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the Portugueſe miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandiſe pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are ſold is 10 per cent. The king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits and other religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government uſed to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore for many years they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the ſame friendly connexion between Great Britain and Portugal does not at preſent ſubſiſt. In the late reign, though they received the moſt effectual aſſiſtance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Moſt Faithful Majeſty judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable body of troops, who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers: but ſince that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the diſcipline of the troops, ſo that the military force of Portugal is now again inconſiderable. The

naval force of this kingdom is about ſeventeen ſhips of war, including ſix frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal, and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Moſt Faithful Majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon is prince of Braſil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſalter-wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch—The ſupporters are two winged dragons, and the creſt a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the ſecond patee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is, changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and diſtinctions of their nobility are much the ſame with thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis*, or *Aviez*, firſt inſtituted by Alphonſus Henriquez, king of Portugal in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was ſubject to the order of Calatrava in Spain, but when Don John of Portugal ſeized the crown he made it again independent. 2. The "Order of St. *James*," inſtituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, ſuppoſing that under that ſaint's protection he became victorious over the Moors, and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their enſign is a red ſword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela.—3. The "Order of *Chriſt*," was inſtituted in 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him more powerfully againſt the Moors. The knights obtained great poſſeſſions, and elected their grand-maſter, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his ſucceſſors to the crown of Portugal. Theſe orders have ſmall commandaries and revenues annexed to them, but are in little eſteem. The "Order of *Malta*," hath likewiſe 23 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greateſt part of the ancient Luſitania, and ſhared the ſame fate with the other Spaniſh provinces in the conteſts between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was ſucceſſively in ſubjection to the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, and Moors. In the 11th century, Alphonſus VI. king of Caſtile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandſon of Robert king of France, for his bravery and aſſiſtance againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon Alphonſus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a deciſive victory over five Mooriſh kings, in July 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonſus was then proclaimed king by his ſoldiers. He reigned 46 years, and was eſteemed for his courage and love of learning.—His deſcendants maintained themſelves on the throne for ſome centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice in the year 1240.

Dennis I.

Dennis I. or Dionyſius, was called the *Father of his Country*; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Chriſt, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years.—Under his ſucceſſor Alphonſus IV. happened ſeveral earthquakes at Liſbon, which threw down part of the city and deſtroyed many lives.—John I. was illuſtrious for his courage prudence, and conqueſts in Africa; under him Madeira was firſt diſcovered in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and after a reign of 49 years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonſo V. about 1480, the Portugueſe diſcovered the coaſt of Guinea; and in the reign of his ſucceſſor John II. they diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and ſettled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the Eaſt Indies. Emanuel, ſurnamed the Great, ſucceeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceſſors, fitting out fleets for new diſcoveries. Vaſco de Gama under him, cruiſed along the coaſt of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indoſtan: and in the year 1500 Alvarez diſcovered Braſil.

John III. ſucceeded in 1521, and while he loſt ſome of his African ſettlements, made new acquiſitions in the Indies. He ſent the famous Xavier, as a miſſionary to Japan, and in the height of his zeal, eſtabliſhed that infernal tribunal the inquiſition of Portugal, anno 1526, againſt the intreaties and remonſtrances of his people. Sebaſtian his grandſon ſucceeded him in 1557, and undertook a cruſade againſt the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either ſlain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebaſtian, being the ſon of Emanuel, ſucceeded, but died without iſſue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony Prior of Crato was choſen king, by the ſtates of the kingdom, but Philip II. of Spain, as hath been obſerved in our hiſtory of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, becauſe his mother was the eldeſt of the grand-mother of the princes of Braganza, and ſent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who ſubdued the country and proclaimed his maſter king of Portugal, the 12 Sept. 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two ſucceſſors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portugueſe with great rapacity and violence. The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaſſals of Spain, and by their repeated acts of oppreſſion and tyranny, they ſo kindled the hatred and courage of the Portugueſe, as to produce a revolt at Liſbon, the 1ſt of December 1640. The people obliged John duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown to accept it, and he ſucceeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almoſt without bloodſhed, and the foreign ſettlements alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſubſiſted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to reunite them, proved vain, ſo that a treaty was concluded in February 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſ-

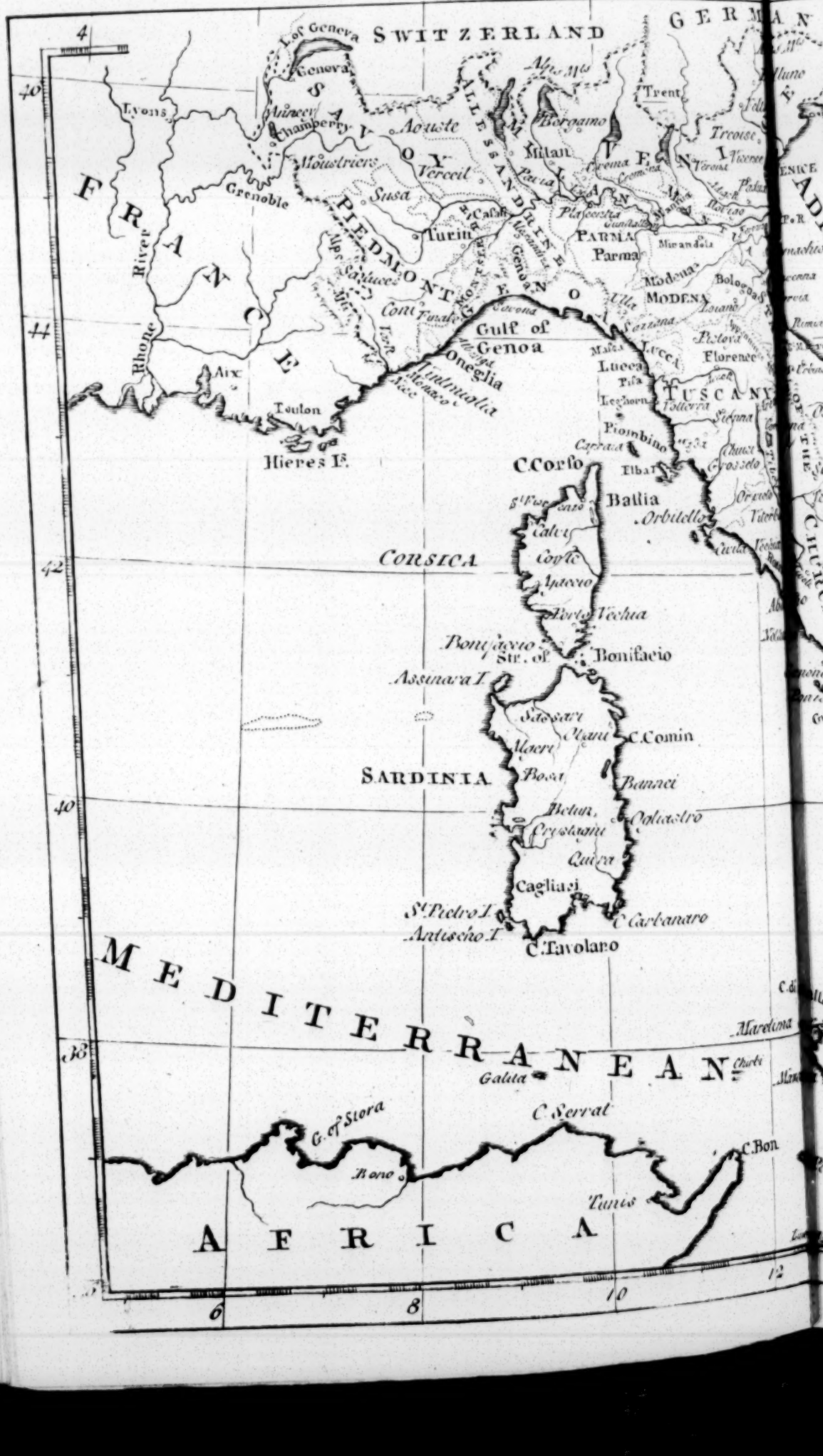
penſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza in 1707.—John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to himſelf, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. His ſucceeding adminiſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood; and rendered odious by exceſſive and horrible cruelty. In 1760, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belem. Some of the firſt families of the kingdom were hereupon ruined, tortured, and nearly cut off from the face of the earth, in conſequence of an accuſation being exhibited againſt them of having conſpired againſt the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has been ſince publicly and authentically declared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime miniſter of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a moſt unbounded authority, and which appears to have been ſometimes directed to the moſt cruel and arbitrary purpoſes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, attempted to force his Faithful Majeſty into their alliance, and offered to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe.

Be that as it will, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who often had been ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the

24th


SWITZERLAND
GERMAN
Lof Geneva
Geneva
SAVOY
Lyons
Chamberry
Aouste
Moustriers
Grenoble
Susa
Vercell
Turin
PIEDMONT
Alps
Coni
Rhone River
FRANCE
Aix
Toulon
Hieres Is.
Milan
Trent
Trevise
Verona
Brescia
Bergamo
Cremona
Pavia
Lodi
Mantua
Piacenza
PARMA
Parma
Miranda
Modena
Bologna
MODENA
Reggio
Ferrara
Pistoya
Florence
Lucca
Pisa
Leghorn
TUSCANY
Volterra
Siena
Piombino
Elba
Grosseto
Orbitello
Viterbo
Civita Vecchia
Gulf of Genoa
Genoa
Savona
Oneglia
Tenda
Nice
Ventimiglia
CCorso
Ballia
Calvi
Corte
Aleria
Porto Vecchia
Bonifacio
Str. of Bonifacio
Assinara I.
Sassari
Oristani
C. Comin
Macri
SARDINIA
Bosa
Bannei
Orestagni
Cagliari
St. Pietro I.
Antiocho I.
C. Carbanaro
C. Tavolaro
MEDITERRANEAN
Galita
C. Serrat
C. of Stora
Bono
Tunis
C. Bon
AFRICA
4
40
42
38
6
8
10
12


ITALY
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
ADRIATIC SEA OR GULF OF VENICE
TURKY
SEA
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
CHURCH
Ancona
Loretto
Fermo
Ragusa
Durazzo
Brindisi
Barri
Trani
Matera
Tarento
Gulf of Tarento
C. St. Leuca
Corfu I.
Otrante
Chimæra
C. di Palinuro
Cotrone
Rossano
La Sila
Severino
Belvastro
Squilace
Nicotera
Stromboli
LIPARI ISLES
Lipari
Eliceusa
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
C. Spartivento
SICILY
Mt Etna
Catania
Augusta
Syracuse
Noto
C. Passaro
Canal of Malta
Naples
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Gaeta
Ischia
Salerno
Capua
Sora
Molise
Aquila
Teramo
Ascoli
Camerino
Osimo
Florence
Italian Miles.
50 100 150
16 Degrees of Longitude 18 East from London 20
40
42
44
36
38

24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign was the removal from power the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtration; though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry public meaſures, which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Portugal.

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, who was born 1717, by whom ſhe has iſſue.

1. Joſeph-Francis-Xavier, prince of Braſil, born in 1761, married in 1777, to his aunt Mary-Franciſca-Benedicta, born in 1746.
2. Infant John-Maria-Joſeph, 1767.
3. Infanta Maria-Anna-Victoria, 1768.
4. Infanta Maria-Clementina, 1774.

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# ITALY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 600 | between | 38 and 47 north latitude. |
| Breadth 400 | | 7 and 19 eaſt longitude. |

THE form of Italy, renders it very difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; for, according to ſome accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts, it is ſcarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the Eaſt it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic ſea; on the South and Weſt by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are divided and exhibited in the following table.

| Italy. | Countries Names. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| To the king of Sardinia | Piedmont | 6619 | 140 | 98 | Turin |
| | Savoy | 3572 | 87 | 60 | Chambery |
| | Montferrat | 446 | 40 | 22 | Caſal |
| | Aleſſandrine | 204 | 27 | 20 | Alexandria |
| | Oneglia | 132 | 24 | 7 | Oneglia |
| | Sardinia I. | 6600 | 135 | 57 | Cagliari |
| To the king of Naples | Naples | 22,000 | 275 | 200 | Naples |
| | Sicily I. | 9400 | 180 | 92 | Palermo |
| To the Emperor | Milan | 5431 | 155 | 70 | Milan |
| | Mantua | 700 | 47 | 27 | Mantua |
| | Mirandola | 120 | 19 | 10 | Mirandola |
| | Pope's dominions | 14,348 | 235 | 143 | ROME N. lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45. |
| To their reſpective princes | Tuſcany | 6640 | 115 | 94 | Florence |
| | Maſſa | 82 | 16 | 11 | Maſſa |
| | Parma | 1225 | 48 | 37 | Parma |
| | Modena | 1560 | 65 | 39 | Modena |
| | Piombino | 100 | 22 | 18 | Piombino |
| | Monaco | 24 | 12 | 4 | Monaco |
| Republics | Lucca | 286 | 28 | 15 | Lucca |
| | St. Marino | 8 | | | St. Marino |
| | Genoa | 2400 | 160 | 2[illegible] | Genoa |
| To France | Corſica I. | 2520 | 90 | 38 | Baſtia |
| To the republic of Venice | Venice | 8434 | 175 | 95 | Venice |
| | Iſtria P. | 1245 | 6 | 32 | Capo d'Iſtria |
| | Dalmatia P. | 1400 | 135 | 20 | Zara |
| | Iſles of Dalmatia | 1364 | | | |
| Iſlands in the Venetian dominions | Cephalonia | 428 | 40 | 18 | Cephalonia |
| | Corfu, or Corcyra | 194 | 31 | 10 | Corfu |
| | Zant, or Zacyn | 120 | 23 | 12 | Zant |
| | St. Maura | 56 | 12 | 7 | St. Maura |
| | Little Cephalonia | 14 | 7 | 3 | |
| | Ithaca olim | | | | |
| | Total— | 75,056 | | | |

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſan, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the South being warm, thoſe on the North mild and temperate. The ſea-breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency

convenience of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda in the North; the Perugia or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULFS OR BAYS, CAPES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory nor geography of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas of Italy are, the gulfs of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea: the ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; the ſtrait of Meſſina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; and the ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuſe, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral ſprings; ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious cryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. Beſides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of ſoil, Italy produces citrons, and ſuch quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plumbs, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, and thoſe of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great meaſure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is

proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the preſent inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider that the modern Italians are in a great meaſure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the tranſmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and ſtates of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; ſo that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but ſome calculations greatly exceed that number*. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have ſuch meaning in their looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. The women are well-ſhaped, and very amorous The marriage ties, eſpecially of the better ſort, are ſaid to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been repreſented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either ſide. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the repreſentations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety, and they ſubmit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity they diſcover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondneſs for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peaſant can be luxurious at a very ſmall expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many deſcendants of the ancient Romans, yet the preſent inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt.

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dreſt in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make at preſent but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriage, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them, for a month, or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenced trade.

* Mr. Swinburne ſaith, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples, amounted to 4,249,430, excluſive of the army and naval eſtabliſhment.

The

The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a matraſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp: for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches: an Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage: another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad: and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

Religion.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their worſhip. In the introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy: but that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing

amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to [illegible]. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their parts, and where many tranſactions paſs which hardly ſhew their inſpiration to be from the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink-ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother-church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law, truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the aboveſaid ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent*, concerning original ſin and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity, of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſubſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation. I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chriſt are to be worſhipped and prayed unto: and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do moſt firmly aſſert, that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed Vir-

* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, archbiſhops, biſhops, and divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppreſs what they were pleaſed to term the Riſing Hereſies in the church.

gin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them*.

"I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Chriſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to chriſtian people †.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apoſtolical Roman church to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches; and I do promiſe and ſwear

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* An Engliſh traveller, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it as follows. I had occaſion, ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in lack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long liſt of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be ſeen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-Houſe for Sin*; from which we ſhall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.
For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7s. 6d.
For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or ſiſter, 10s. 6d.
For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10s. 6d.
For a prieſt that keeps a concubine; as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that lyeth with his *own mother*, *ſiſter*, or *godmother*, 7s. 6d.
For him that *burns* his neighbour's houſe 12s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1l. 7s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Chriſtian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18s.
To eat fleſh and white meats in Lent, and other faſting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1l. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all delinquents, 3l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3l.

true

true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematiſed by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematiſe."

ARCHBISHOPRICKS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhopricks in Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtyle and writings is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro, che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato ill tuo nome; ill tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſic come in cielo coſi anche in terra: dacci oggi ill noſtro pane cotidiano: e rimettici i noſtri debita, ſic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; percioche tuo e il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } In the Introduction, we have particulariſed ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of letters, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit; and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the proſe writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the moſt pure and correct in point of ſtyle: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the ſpirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Arioſto, and Taſſo, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are ſaid to be upwards of a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metaſtaſio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who was ſo much diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning

learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own perſon painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Corelli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa*, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library might be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this ſubject. We can give but a very brief account of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence: there are at Rome conſiderable remains of that which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſſeo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building; and it is ſaid to have been capable of containing eighty-ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is. But it has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its deſtruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thouſand perſons may be ſeated here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greateſt care, at the expence of the inhabitants. They frequently give public ſpectacles in it, ſuch as horſe-races, combats of wild beaſts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are alſo viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at

* Piſa hath 46 profeſſors.

preſent

preſent converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which anciently contained the ſtatues of the Heathen deities. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli free-ſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique baſon of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges and the like, preſent themſelves all over the country of Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground; witneſs the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years ſince, a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava in its courſe filled up the ſtreets and houſes in ſome places to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is compoſed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which all together form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the year 1713, upon digging into

into theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortunate city was diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the ſearch was afterwards diſcontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but alſo the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a ſtatue of gold, and the inſcription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horſes of the ſame metal, likewiſe gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewiſe found among the ruins of this city multitudes of ſtatues, buſtos, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils, and the ſearch is ſtill continued. The ſtreets of the town appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, and the houſes well built, and much alike; ſome of the rooms paved with moſaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and ſix inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up ſo unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greateſt part of the inhabitants from eſcaping with many of their richeſt effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen ſkeletons found, and but little of gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones.

The town of Pompeia was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum; but it was not diſcovered till near forty years after the diſcovery of Herculaneum. One ſtreet, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared: the ſtreet is well paved with the ſame kind of ſtone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow cauſeways are raiſed a foot and a half on each ſide for conveniency of foot paſſengers. Dr. Moor obſerves, that the ſtreet itſelf is not ſo broad as the narroweſt part of the Strand, and is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are ſmall, but give an idea of neatneſs and convenience. The ſtucco on the walls is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome animal. They are tolerably well executed, and on a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are built on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage, which is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window to the ſtreet, and a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhewing the goods to the greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonnade, towards the court, ſomething in the ſtyle of the Royal Exchange at London, but ſmaller. At a conſiderable diſtance from this, is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis, the pillars of which are of brick, ſtuccoed like thoſe of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in the ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contain a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be

termed

termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius towards the ſea, is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The South and Weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of mount Veſuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. It hath been a volcano, beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. An animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate, however then it broke out with accumulated fury and deſolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which deſtroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this laſt eruption the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreets were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to guard themſelves againſt them. The tops of the houſes, and the balconies, were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly deſcribed by ſir William Hamilton in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good; even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed that open and active, the mount is leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles confined to its own bowels, for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the unſtable foundation of the whole diſtrict of Terra di Lavora*.

Mount

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May 1783. gives ſeveral reaſons for believing that they were occaſioned by the operation of a volcano, the ſeat of which lay deep either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, and the coaſt of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly obſerved a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as alſo in the degree of mortality, on

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountans, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almoſt the whole year covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed.

Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzoli, there is a village called Solfatara, becauſe vaſt quanities of ſulphur are continually forced out of the clifts by ſubterranean fires. The Grotto del Cani is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almoſt to the plain of the vale of Chomouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn-fields, and rich meadows; ſo that immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed to each other, in the moſt ſingular and ſtriking viciſſitude. All theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of Mr. de Luc, the height of this mountain, above the level of the ſea, is 2391½ French toiſes, or 15,303 Engliſh feet. "I am convinced," ſays Mr. Coxe, "from the ſituation of Mont Blanc, from the height of the mountains around it, from its ſuperior elevation above them, and its being ſeen at a great diſtance from all ſides, that it is higher than any mountain in Swiſſerland: which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont Blanc, the higheſt ground in Europe.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES.

Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian ſtates are not, like the republics of Holland, or Swiſſerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, for every Italian ſtate has diſtinct forms of government, trade, and intereſts, I ſhall be obliged to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of Savoy, or, as he is now ſtyled, king of Sardinia, taking his royal title from that iſland, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. His capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are

in proportion as the countries were more or leſs diſtant from this ſuppoſed centre of the evil. One circumſtance he particularly remarked: if two towns were ſituated at an equal diſtance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always ſuffered greatly more by the ſhocks of the earthquakes than the former; a ſufficient proof to him of the cauſe coming from beneath, as this moſt naturally have been productive of ſuch an effect.

forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple, but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſt of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation, he was eſteemed a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The Milaneſe, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000l. annually, which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies, where they converſe almoſt on all ſubjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; ſo that its revenue, unleſs the court of Vienna ſhall purſue ſome other ſyſtem of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Auſtrian Lombardy.

The republic of Genoa is vaſtly degenerated form its ancient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city, and contains ſome very magnificent palaces, particularly thoſe of Doria*, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe to any one of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility; the chief perſon is called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no perſon is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is choſen, and the former is incapable during five years of holding the ſame poſt again. The doge gives audience to ambaſſadors, all orders of government are iſſued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

Venice is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468: he was offered the ſovereignty of the ſtate, but refuſed it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which ſtill ſubſiſts; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

provinces

provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated, except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their ancient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothiciſm. They have had however lately ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people, and ſo continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were inveſted with great power, which they often groſly abuſed, and ſome of them were aſſaſſinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legiſlative nobility was formed, continued, and progreſſive encroachments were made upon the rights of the people, and a complete ariſtocracy was at length eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elect a doge or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to ſtir from the city without the permiſſion of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſeigniory, is the ſupreme cabinet council of ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers anſwers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It alſo receives all requeſts and memorials on ſtate affairs, ſummons the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranges the buſineſs to be diſcuſſed in that aſſembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of ſtate crimes, and has the power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, examining them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the evidence againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſts only of three members, and which is in the higheſt degree deſpotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf, not being excepted. To theſe three inquiſitors is given the right of employing ſpies, conſidering ſecret intelligence, iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words or actions they think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they pleaſe, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers: and of courſe they may command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continue in office only one year, but are not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt they were in authority. So much diſtruſt and jealouſy are diſplayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or

with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of viſiting at each other's houſes.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or ſtate-barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's ſhew. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all, fine looking-glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate annually is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate and the pay of the army, which in time of peace conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general), and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and they have among them ſome orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the *Stola doro*, ſo called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military order of St. Mark, of which in the proper place.

In eccleſiaſtical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all religious ſects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe tranſmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veroneſe and Titian. The women are of a fine ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and are of an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. As it is very much the cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in other places: but this opinion ſeems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houſes.

The dominions of Venice conſiſt of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenſa and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The ſubjects of the Venetian republic are not oppreſſed: the ſenate has found that mild treatment, and good uſage, are the beſt policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts.

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The principal city of Tuſcany is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand-duke's palaces have been often deſcribed; but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that in every reſpect it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The inſcription on its baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca; and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar-windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Since the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, brother to the preſent emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great-duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above 500,000l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the firſt and laſt are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land ſide. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and may ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of Lucca, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand-duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom; for in ſuch a ſituation, an univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling Liberty, whoſe

name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is alſo obſervable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. Marino is here mentioned as a geographical curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved its conſtitution.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy of its extent. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee, and an univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The preſent duke of Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was ſome years paſt the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his Catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy, and it is ſaid that his revenues exceed 100,000l. ſterling a year, a ſum rather exaggerated.—The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

Mantua, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a-year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milaneſe, in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now to be called Auſtrian Lombardy.

The duchy of Modena (formerly Mutina) is ſtill governed by its own duke, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwic deſcended. The duke is abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and is a vaſſal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flouriſhing, though very improveable, they having been alternately waſted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The Eccleſiaſtical State, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, are here ſeen in the higheſt perfection. Thoſe ſpots, which under the maſters of the world were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious peſtilential marſhes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford at preſent of itſelf, but a miſerable ſubſiſtence to about five hundred. Notwithſtanding this, the pope is a conſiderable temporal

prince,

prince, and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a million ſterling; other authors calculate them to be much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively, the ſum of a million ſterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed by the ſuppreſſion of the order of the Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the popiſh powers, for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon the proviſions and lodgings, furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within theſe thirty years paſt, there is reaſon to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon ſhall pleaſe to preſcribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The diſcouragement of induſtry and agriculture ſeems to be interwoven in the conſtitution of the papal government, which is veſted in proud, lazy eccleſiaſtics. Their indolence, and the fanaticiſm of their worſhip, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and impoſing upon ſtrangers, to induſtry and agriculture, eſpecially as they muſt hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their ſuperiors. In ſhort, the inhabitants of many parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate muſt periſh through their ſloth, did not the fertility of their ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them ſubſiſtence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and ſloth of the lower ranks do not take their riſe from their natural diſpoſitions.

This obſervation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repoſitory of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the induſtry, or relieving the wants of their ſubjects; and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpreſſible, and partly account for the miſery of the ſubjects. But this cenſure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curioſities and antiquities. It ſtands upon the Tyber, an inconſiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be found to be a place of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of ancient Rome lies much higher, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itſelf in the magnificence of its ſtructures; nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it muſt be acknowledged that the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we conſider that the ſpirit

of travelling is much increaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopoliſes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications.

I have, under the head of religion, mentioned the eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy. As to the rota, and other ſubordinate chambers of this complicated juriſdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government ſo conſtituted, it cannot be ſuppoſed that the commercial exports of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *à latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more ſociably and comfortably than the other ſubjects of the pope; and perhaps their diſtance from Rome, which is 195 miles north-weſt, has contributed to their eaſe. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in ancient hiſtory, and even now exhibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the neighbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), Ancona, and many other ſtates and cities, illuſtrious in former times, are now to be ſeen only in their ruins and ancient hiſtory. Loretto, on the other hand, an obſcure ſpot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious reſort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propagated by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumſtances, ſuch as that all the trees, on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, bowed with the profoundeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this houſe from being carried to other places, and expoſed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſeparated from the others by a ſilver baluſtrade, which has a gate of the ſame metal.—It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of ſolid gold, who are here placed on every ſide, are equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this maſs of treaſure. It has been matter of ſurpriſe, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks

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or Barbary ſtates upon Loretto, eſpecially as it is badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea; but it is now generally ſuppoſed, that the real treaſure is withdrawn, and metals and ſtones of leſs value ſubſtituted in its place.

The king of Naples and Sicily, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the iſland of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 ſquare miles. They are bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-eaſt, where Naples terminates on the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The Apennine runs through it from North to South, and its ſurface is eſtimated at 3,500 ſquare leagues. The air is hot, and its ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Chriſti, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the moſt delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Veſuvius, which ſometimes threatens the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are very handſome: no ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo at Naples; and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the moſt fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a ſmall part of their revenue is ſpent in feeding the poor, the monks diſtributing bread and ſoup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king amount to above 750,000l. ſterling a year; but it is more than probable that, by the new eſtabliſhed police purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniſeeds, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains at leaſt, 350,000 inhabitants. Among theſe are about 30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they reſort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds like ſheep in a pinfold. Thoſe of them who

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have wives and children, live in the ſuburbs of Naples near Pauſilippo, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about the ſtreets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very ſmall recompence. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is in ſome degree ſupplied by the ſoup and bread which are diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among ſome of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne), luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap; but hair plainly dreſt is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and underground granaries; and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is ſtill marked out to poſterity by the name of *pezzo di ſangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, hath the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatre, and as the place where Auguſtus Cæſar died, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brunduſium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a ſtate of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114. is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar; part of the wall ſtill remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1783, but not deſtroyed: only 126 loſt their lives out of 10,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greateſt force thereof ſeems to have been exerted near that ſpot, and at Caſal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, ſir William Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles, you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixing your central

central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the ſpot on which the earthquake had exerted its greateſt force), form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I juſt ſaid, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the ſpots where the greateſt mortality has happened, and where there have been the moſt viſible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compaſs on the ſame ſcale to 72 miles, preſerving the ſame centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The iſland of Sicily, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and conſequently fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo as to become a perfect iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many reſpects be a delightful place of reſidence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a conſiderable trade; as alſo did Meſſina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city and of the port was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain, for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population of the city, only 700 is ſaid to have periſhed. "The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuovo, the princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants loſt their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loſs at about 3000 each: Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari ſtill more. The ſum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367;" but ſir William Hamilton ſaith, "he has good reaſon to believe, that, including ſtrangers, the numbers of lives loſt muſt have been conſiderably greater: 40,000 at leaſt may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration."

The iſland of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy,

lies about 150 miles weſt of Leghorn, and hath ſeven cities or towns.—Its capital, Cagliari, is an univerſity, an archbiſhoprick, and the ſeat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed 5000l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from its marſhes and high mountains on the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719, to the houſe of Savoy.

The iſland of Corſica lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty, againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of the French to enſlave them, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength; though other towns of the iſland, that were in poſſeſſion of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

Capri, the ancient Caprea, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Cæſar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from Eaſt to Weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Anno Capi, the largeſt town of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can eaſily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble proſpect: on one ſide of it the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

Iſchia, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. Elba hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory. Virgil and Ariſtotle mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles ſouth-weſt from Tuſcany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, and the great-duke of Tuſcany, who is maſter of Porto Ferraio, and the

the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the iſland are very good, and the tunny fiſheries and ſalt produce a good revenue.

I ſhall here mention the iſle of Malta, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 15 degrees E. long. and 45 degrees N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear but exceſſively hot: the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-ſtuff of all kinds. This iſland, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors; they are now known by the diſtinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order, was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reſide on the iſland, the remainder are in their ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons are to make a perſonal appearance. They had a ſeminary in England, till it was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII. but they now give to one the title of Grand Prior of England. They are conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of the order, a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, pendent to a black watered riband at the breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo, as to diſtinguiſh the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or ſuch as can prove their gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are ſixteen called the Great Croſſes, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are choſen. When the great-maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the ſixteen great croſſes the great-maſter is elected, whoſe title is, "The moſt illuſtrious, and moſt reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great-maſter of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valetta or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole iſland is ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th of September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta, in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day 1563, after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples,

are,

are, azure, semée of flower-de-luces, or, with a label of five points, gules.

The "order of *St. Janarius*," was instituted by the present king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30, and after the present sovereign, that office of the order is to be possessed by the kings of Naples. All the knights must prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries, and are to be addressed by the title of Excellency. St. Janarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of *Annunciation*," was instituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks, and won those arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy, "Gules, a cross argent." It is counted among the most respectable orders in Europe: the knight must not only be of a noble family, but also a papist. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, instituted the "order of *St. Lazarus*," and revived and united the obsolete order of *St. Maurice* to it; which was confirmed by the pope on the condition of maintaining two gallies against the Turks.

In the year 828 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria in Egypt to Venice. Accordingly this saint hath been taken for their tutelary saint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their ensigns and banners. When the "order of *St Mark*" was first instituted is uncertain, but it is an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the senate, on persons of eminent quality, or who have done some signal service to the republic. The knights, when made, if present, are dubbed with a sword on their shoulders, the duke saying "*Esto miles fidelis*" (be a faithful soldier). Absent persons are invested by letters patent, but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows as other orders. About the year 1460, Frederick III. emperor of Germany, instituted the "order of *St. George*," and dedicated it to the St. George tutelary saint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand-master. The badge, a plain cross enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and wore about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Casimir of Medicis, first grand-duke of Tuscany, instituted the "order of *St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory which secured to him the sovereignty of that province. He and his successors were to be the grand-masters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houses are at Pisa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of Justice and the Ecclesiastics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four descents. They wear a red cross with right angles, orled, or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghost*," was founded with their chief seat, the hospital of that name at Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-master, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is a white patriarchal cross with 12 points, sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle. The "order of *Jesus Christ*," instituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and was designed as a mark of distinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its

its frequent proſtitution, hath fallen into diſcredit. The "order of the *Golden Spur*," is ſaid to have been inſtituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," inſtituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are ſuppreſſed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preſerved to themſelves, is the title of counts of the ſacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a ſpur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient hiſtory of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, ſoon experienced that of Alexander. Under his ſucceſſors it was in a ſhort time entirely diſmembered. His ſon, Lewis the Debonair, ſucceeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grand-ſon of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent iſlands. But Bernard having loſt his life by the cruelty of his uncle, againſt whom he had levied war, and Lewis himſelf dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his ſons Lothario, Lewis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries ſituated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great re-united Italy to the imperial dominions. Italy afterwards ſuffered much by the conteſts between the popes and the emperors; it was harraſſed by wars and internal diviſions; and at length various principalities and ſtates were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718 †.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties

† Victor Amadeus Maria king of Sardinia and duke of Savoy, born June 26, 1726; married April 12, 1750, to Maria-Antonietta-Ferdinanda, infanta of Spain; aſcended the throne on the death of his father, February 20, 1773. Their iſſue are,

1. Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, prince of Piedmont, born May 24, 1751.
2. Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, born September 2, 1753; married to the Count de Provence.
3. Maria-Thereſa, born January 31ſt, 1756; married to the Count d'Artois.
4. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born December 17, 1757.
5. Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan duc d'Aoſte, born July 24, 1759.
6. Maurice-Joſeph-Maria, duc de Montſerrat, born September 12, 1762.
7. Maria Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
8. Charles-Joſeph, duc de Génevois, born April 6, 1765.
9. Joſeph Benedict, compte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

againſt

againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the father of his country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius the V. gave one of his deſcendants, Coſmo (the great patron of the arts), the title of Great-Duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great-duchy was then claimed by the emeperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon, brother to the preſent emperor, is now grand-duke, and Tuſcany aſſumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the depredations of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Auſtrian line, was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings, in the year 1647. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurpriſing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re-eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Auſtrian line opened a new ſcene of litigation. In 1706 the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effuſion of blood was ſtopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain in 175[illegible], it being found, by the inſpection of phyſicians, and other trials, that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his ſecond ſon being heir-apparent to the Spaniſh monarchy,

monarchy, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchеſs of Auſtria *.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion in Italy, went through ſeveral hands: the Viſcontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas, but fell at laſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the Imperialiſts. They were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtalla was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715 they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe, for ſome time diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the French and Imperialiſts. Their doge, or firſt magiſtrate, uſed to be crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly appear by what title; that iſland is now ceded to the French by the Genoeſe. The ſucceſsful effort they made in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in hiſtory, and ſerves to ſhew the effects of deſpair under oppreſſion. At preſent they are poſſeſſed of revenue barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

The hiſtory of the Papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the fa-

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third ſon of the preſent king of Spain, was born in 1751, and married 1768, to the archduchеſs Maria-Caroline-Louiſa, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany, born in 1752; by whom he hath iſſue.

1. Maria-Thereſa-Caroline, born June 6, 1772.
2. Louiſa-Maria-Amelia, born July 28, 1773.
3. Maria-Anne-Joſepha, born 1775.
4. Francis-Janvier, born 1777.
5. Mary-Chriſtina, born 1779.

mous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even ſince that æra the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes, who ſeem now to be recovering from their religious deluſions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jeſus, who were not improperly called its Janizaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other popiſh countries. The pope himſelf is treated by Roman catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe, and to the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom.

John Angelo Braſchi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

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# TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's dominions are divided into

| | | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | TURKEY IN EUROPE. | 960,060 |
| 2. | TURKEY IN ASIA. | |
| 3. | TURKEY IN AFRICA. | |

## TURKEY IN EUROPE.

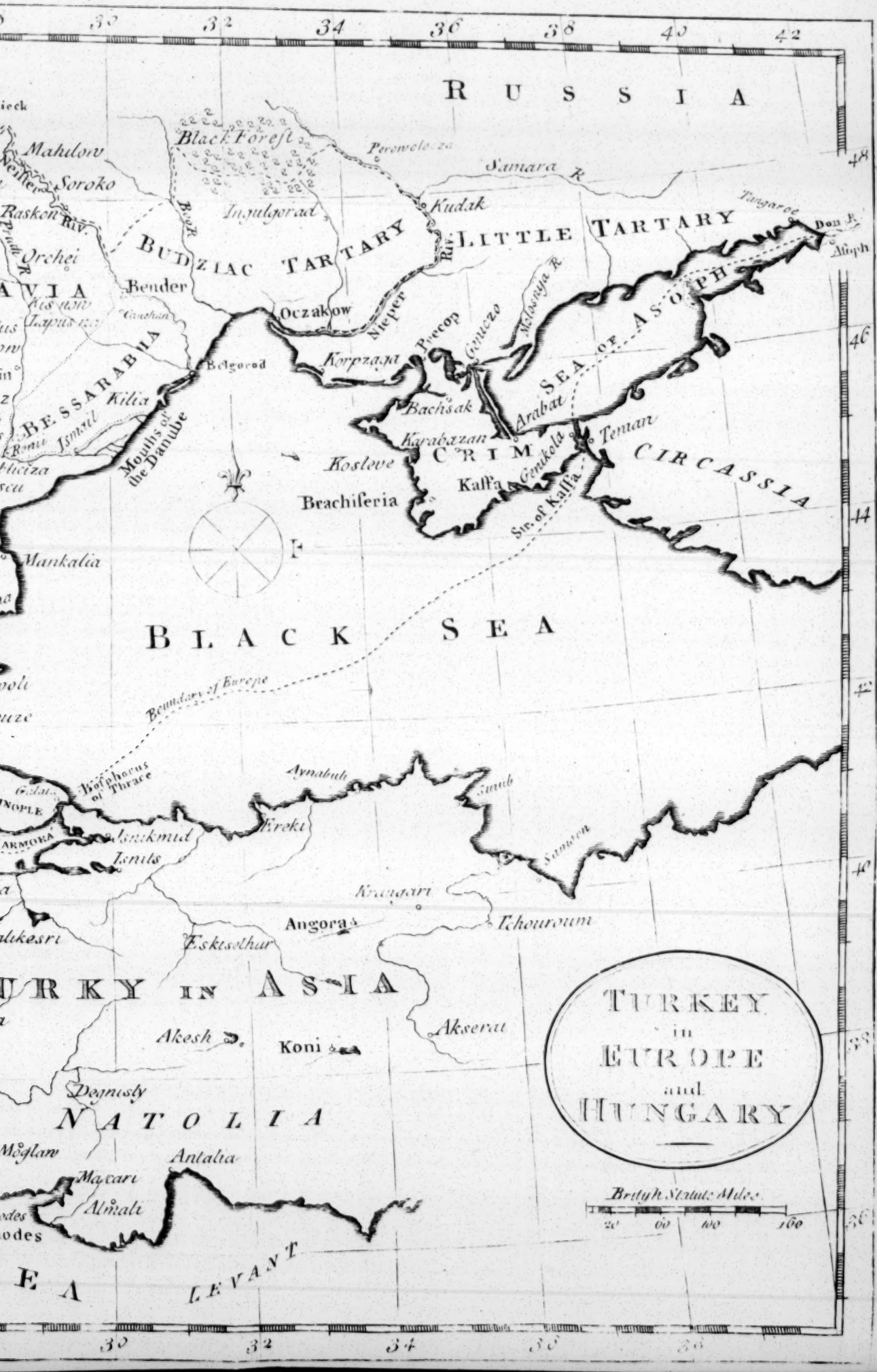
### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1000 | between | 17 and 40 East long. | 151,800 |
| Breadth | 900 | | 36 and 49 North lat. | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the Eaſt; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.


POLAND
MORAVIA
GERMANY
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
MOLDAVIA
WALACHIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
CROATIA
DALMATIA
TURKY IN EUROPE
BULGARIA
ROMANIA
MACEDONIA
THESSALY
EPIRUS
ACHAIA
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ARCHIPELAGO
CANDIA
Carpathian Mountains
Vienna
Presburgh
Buda
Pest
Agria
Tokay
Hradeck
Eperies
Caschau
Ungvar
Husl
Bolgar
Davideni
Bistritz
Hermanstat
Brassou
Fogaras
Arad
Temeswar
Belgrade
Semendria
Seraio
Mostar
Vissegrad
Scopia
Philippopoli
Adrianople
Constantinople
Salonichi
Contessa
Durazzo
Corfu I.
Butrinto
Larta
Chimæra
Patras
Corinth
Athens
Zante
Modon
Coron
Cerigo I.
Milo
Samos
Naxia
Paros
Mitylene
Smyrna
Rhodes
Candia
Canea
Retano
Spina longa
C. St John
C. Melala
Sapienza I.
Cerigoto
Colokythia
Sea of Marmora
Dardanelles
Longitude East from London


RUSSIA
Black Forest
Perowelocza
Samara R.
Kudak
Tangaroc
Don R.
Mahulow
Soroko
Raskon Riv.
Ingulgorad
BUDZIAC TARTARY
LITTLE TARTARY
Bender
Oczakow
Nieper Riv.
Precop
Genuczo
Molotnya R.
SEA OF AZOPH
Belgorod
Korpzapa
Bachsak
Arabat
Karabazan
CRIM
Temar
CIRCASSIA
Kilia
Ismail
Mouths of the Danube
Koslove
Kaffa
Cimkolt
Brachiseria
Str. of Kaffa
Mankalia
BLACK SEA
Boundary of Europe
Bosphorus of Thrace
Aynabuli
Sinub
Fireki
Isnikmid
Isnits
Samsun
Kruugari
Angora
Tchourum
Eskiselhar
Akserai
Akesh
Koni
Degnisly
Moglan
Antalia
Maycari
Almali
LEVANT
TURKEY in EUROPE and HUNGARY
British Statute Miles
0 60 100 160
30 32 34 36 38 40 42
48 46 44 42 40 38 36

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of | Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Chersonesus* | Precop<br>Brachiseria<br>Kaffa | 26,200 |
| | Budziac Tartary | Oczakow | 12,000 |
| North of the Danube are the provinces of | Bessarabia — | Bender<br>Belgorod | 8,000 |
| | Moldavia, olim Dacia — — | Jazy<br>Choczim<br>Falczin | 26,000 |
| | Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia — | Tergovisc | 10,500 |
| South of the Danube are — | Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia | Widin<br>Nicopoli<br>Silistria<br>Scopia | 17,000 |
| | Servia, the west part of Mysia — | Belgrade<br>Semendria<br>Nissa | 22,570 |
| | Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum — | Seraio | 8,640 |
| On the Bosphorus and Hellespont — | Romania, olim Thrace | Constantinople, N.l.41.E.l.29.<br>Adrianople | 21,200 |
| South of Mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece | Macedonia — | Strymon<br>Contessa | 18,980 |
| | Thessaly, now Janua | Salonichi<br>Larissa | 4,650 |
| | Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia — | Athens<br>Thebes<br>Lepanto | 3,420 |
| On the Adriatic sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum | Epirus — — | Chimera<br>Burtinto | 7,955 |
| | Albania — | Scodra<br>Durazzo<br>Dulcigno | 6,375 |
| | Dalmatia — | Zara<br>Narenza | 4,560 |
| | Ragusa republic † | Ragusa | 430 |

In

* The Russians in 1783 seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division, and by a treaty, signed January 9, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the isle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

† The republic of Ragusa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in

 Europe,

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| In the Morea, the ancient Peloponneſus, being the ſouth diviſion of Greece, are | Corinthia — | Corinth | 7,220 |
| | Argos — — | Argos<br>Napoli de Romania | |
| | Sparta —— | Lacedæmon, now Miſitra, on the river Eurotus | |
| | Olympia, where the Games were held | Olympia, or Longinica on the river Alpheus | |
| | Arcadia — | Modon<br>Coron | |
| | Elis — — | Partas<br>Elis or Belvidere on the riv. Peneus. | |

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature has laviſhed upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her bleſſings in thoſe four particulars. The ſoil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond deſcription. The air is ſalubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unleſs when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence or uncleanneſs of the Turkiſh manner of living. The ſeaſons are here regular and pleaſant, and have been celebrated from the remoteſt times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholeſomeneſs of the water all over their dominions.

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Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Raguſans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand ſignior. They endeavour alſo to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year 1783 a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Raguſan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Raguſa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was ſituated not far from this city. The Raguſans profeſs the Romiſh religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragnſa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Raguſans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The city of Gravoſa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Raguſa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are alſo five ſmall iſlands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

MOUNTAINS.]

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often the most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Haemus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; witness the mountains Suha, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis or sea of Asoph, the sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago, the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

STRAITS.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Scutari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

VEGETABLES AND PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Thessalian or Turkish horses are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe; but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmean games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, a

minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work: but it will be proper to mention ſome of the moſt conſiderable. Among the antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed with forty-ſix fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and ſeven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with baſſo-relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. To the ſouth-eaſt of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are ſeventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and baſes. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order: the portico at the weſt end is adorned with the battle of the centaurs, in baſſo relievo; that at the eaſt end appears to be a continuation of the ſame hiſtory; and on the outſide of the porticos, in the ſpaces between the trigliphs, are repreſented the exploits of Theſeus. On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lantern of Demoſthenes: this is a ſmall round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the ſpace between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the reſemblance of ſcales; and on the frieze are beautifully repreſented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympus, and Auguſtus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of mount Parnaſſus, and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a pleaſant running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadiæ, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninſula which extends into the Ægean ſea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length, and three in breadth: but it is only a ſingle mountain that is properly called Athos. This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the ſun-riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt; and, at the ſolſtice, its ſhade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtant eighty-ſeven miles eaſtward. There are twenty-two convents on Mount Athos, beſides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Theſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are ſo far from being a ſet of ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily office of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheeſe, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many and ſevere; which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common there, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently

the

the mountain in general, and particularly the ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life: whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philoſtratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtleſs built their cells.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the Eaſt Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. "O what a vaſt city is Conſtantinople (exclaims one, when he firſt beheld it), and how beautiful? How many monaſteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufactures are there in the city, amazing to behold! It would be aſtoniſhing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, ſilver, and ſtuffs of various kinds; for every hour ſhips arrive in the port with all things neceſſary for the uſe of man." Conſtantinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular part is the Beſeſtin, incloſed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their ſhops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong ſquare of 400 paces by 100, where they exerciſe on horſeback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large ſpacious ſquare, the general reſort of all ranks. On the oppoſite ſide of the port, are four towns, but conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs, their diſtance being ſo ſmall, a perſon may eaſily be heard on the other ſide. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign ambaſſadors and all the Franks or ſtrangers reſide, not being permitted to live in the city: Galata alſo is moſtly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Conſtantine the Great is ſtill preſerved. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there s a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. When we ſpeak of the ſeraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand ſignior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole incloſure of the Ottoman palace, which might well ſuffice for a moderate town. The wall which ſurrounds the ſeraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures, and towers, in the ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public tranſactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Conſtantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is ſurrounded by a

high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but ſhallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land ſide. The beſt authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are ſaid to be Greeks and Armenians, and the reſt are Jews and Turks. Others ſuppoſe the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000. The city hath been frequently aſſailed by fires, either owing to the narrowneſs of the ſtreets and the ſtructure of the houſes, or the arts of the Janizaries. In Auguſt 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſituated towards the harbour, and ſpread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houſes, (moſt of which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782) were conſumed.

Oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſian ſide, and about a mile and a half diſtant acroſs the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal moſque, and a pleaſant houſe of the grand ſignior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand proſpect. In one view are the cities of Conſtantinople, Galata, and Pera, the ſmall ſeas of the Boſphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each ſhore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, theſe ſeveral heads depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under Turkey in Aſia.

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## ISANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being part of Ancient GREECE.

I Shall mention theſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part.

Negropont, the ancient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia, or Levadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 ſquare miles. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and the iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the iſland are, Negropont called by the Greeks Egripos, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland, on the narroweſt part of the ſtrait: and Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caryſtus.

Lemnos, or Stalimene, lies on the north part of the Egean ſea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, much uſed in medicine, ſometimes called *terra Lemna*, or *ſigillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a conſiderable revenue.

Tenedos is remarkable only for its laying oppoſite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity. It hath a tower of the ſame name.

Scyros is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

Leſbos

Lesbos, or Mytelene, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

Scio, or Chios, lies about 80 miles west of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban, the linen so white and thin it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

Samos lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies Patmos, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The Cyclades islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands of Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

Paros lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity;

tiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteneſs of its marble.

Cerigo, or Cytherea, lies ſouth-eaſt of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite reſidence of Venus.

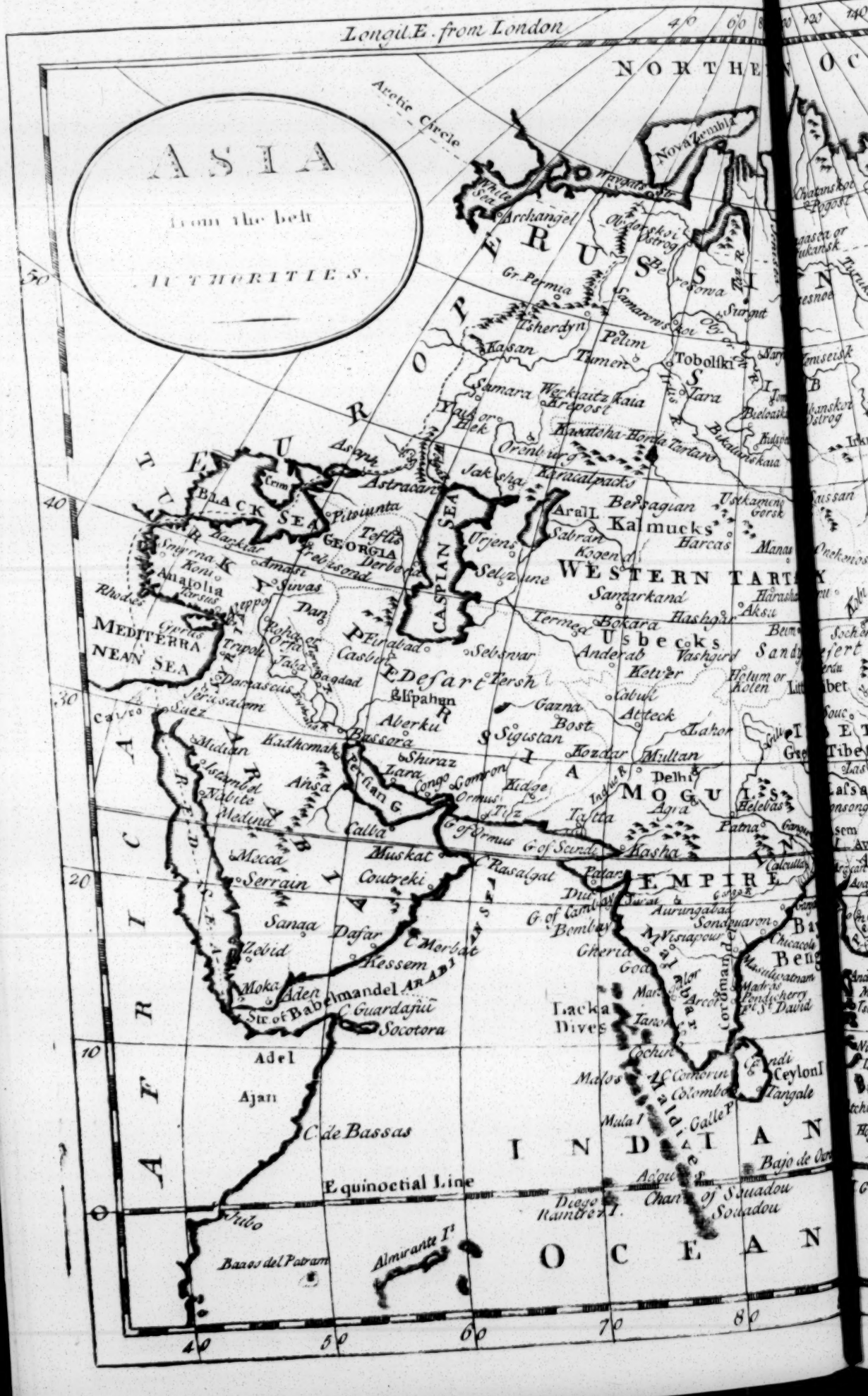
Santorin is one of the moſt ſouthernmoſt iſlands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera. Though ſeemingly covered with pumice-ſtones, yet, through the induſtry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with ſome wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and ſubject to a popiſh biſhop. Near this iſland another aroſe of the ſame name, from the bottom of the ſea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with moſt dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the ſea for ſeveral days, ſo that when it aroſe out of the ſea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning ſoon ceaſed. It is about 200 feet above the ſea; and at the time of its firſt emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has ſince increaſed. Several other iſlands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but the ſea in their neighbourhood is ſo deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous iſland of Rhodes is ſituated in the 28th degree of eaſt longitude, and 36 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of the continent of Leſſer Aſia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This iſland is healthful and pleaſant, and abounds in wine, and many of the neceſſaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the ſame name, ſtands on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and is three miles in circumference, interſperſed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the grand ſignior's principal arſenal for ſhipping, and the place is eſteemed among the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Turks. The coloſſus of braſs which anciently ſtood at the mouth of its harbour, and was 50 fathom wide, was deſervedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each ſide of the harbour, ſhips paſſed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. The face of the coloſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this iſland were formerly maſters of the ſea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after loſing Paleſtine, took this iſland from the Turks in 1308, but loſt it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

Candia, the ancient Crete, is ſtill renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece, and many other hiſtorical and political diſtinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of North latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and contains 3220 ſquare miles. The famous Mount Ida ſtands in the middle of the iſland, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid ſtream. Some of the vallies of this iſland produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The ſiege of Candia, the capital of the iſland, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks inveſted it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garriſon, after bravely defending

itſelf




ASIA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
Longit. E. from London
Arctic Circle
NORTHERN OCEAN
Nova Zembla
Archangel
RUSSIA
Gr. Permia
Tobolski
Samara
Astracan
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
GEORGIA
Derbent
Teflis
Pitsiunta
Trebizond
Amasia
Anatolia
Smyrna
Rhodes
Tripoli
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Damascus
Jerusalem
Suez
Bagdad
Aleppo
Persian G.
Bassora
Aberku
Shiraz
Ormus
Muskat
Mecca
Medina
Sanaa
Zebid
Aden
Mokha
Str. of Babelmandel
Socotora
Adel
Ajan
C. de Bassas
Equinoctial Line
Baxos del Padram
Almirante I.
Arabian Sea
Delhi
MOGUL'S EMPIRE
Agra
Patna
Calicut
Bengal
Ceylon I.
Cochin
Malabar
Coromandel
Maldive I.
INDIAN OCEAN
Usbecks
Kalmucks
WESTERN TARTARY
Samarkand
Bokara
Aksia
Casbin
Ispahan
Candahar
Multan
Lahor
Kabul
Attock
Ormus
Gazna
Bost
Sigistan
Persian Gulf
Ethiopia
Nubia
Abex
Zanguebar
Congo
Lara
Ansa
Calla
Coutreki
Serrain
Dafar
Merbat
Kessem
Muscat
Rasalgat
Gulf of Ormus
Gulf of Scindi
Gulf of Cambay
Bombay
Visiapour
Aurungabad
Goa
Dabul
Cheriapatan
Mangalore
Dacca
Pegu
Malacca
Java
Sumatra
Celebes
Molucco Is.
Philippine Is.
China
Japan
Tibet
Great Tartary
Kitay
Kamschatka
Ostrog
Yakutskoi Ostrog
Irkutskoi Ostrog
Lena R.
Obi R.
Irtish R.
Ob R.
Jenisea R.
Tobol R.
Volga R.
Don R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Indus R.
Ganges R.
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Caspian Sea
Aral L.
Baikal L.
Chinese Wall
Tartary
Siberia
Russia
Europe
Asia
Africa
Ocean
Sea
Gulf
Bay
Strait
Cape
Island
River
Lake
Mountains
Desert
Empire
Kingdom
Province
City
Town
Fort
Factory
Port
Road
Latitude
Longitude
40
50
60
70
80
10
20
30
40
0


Glacial Prom
OCEAN
Nisnee Kaymskoi
Tshukotskoi Noss
Anadirskoi Ostrog
Anadir R
Anadir R
Olutorskoi Ostrog
Ost Karaguiskoi
Nishney Kamtshatkoi Ostrog
Kamchatka
Bolscheretskoi Ostrog
Tauiskoi Ostrog
Sea of Kamchatka
Udskoi Ostrog
Uda R
Sagalin or Amur I.
Kurile Is.
Langaki
Aiha
C Patience
C Aniwa
Company's Land
Uriez Str.
Yeso
C Eroen
Sungaar Str.
Sea of Korea
C Kennis
Tsoo do
C Ava
Fatsisio
Lekeyo I.
Maria
Patos
Farellon
Trinua
Pagon
Tinian
Guhon
Bolls
Samar I.
Leyta I.
St Juan
New Philippines
Gilolo I.
NEW GUINEA
Arou
Timor
Tropic of Cancer
Formosa I.
South Pt
Bashi Is.
C Engano
Luconia I.
Philippina Islands
Haman I.
The Iunets
Tonkin Gulf
Kauchen China
Makau
Kyang
Canton
Yun-nan
Quey-yang
Quey-ting
Panking
Chungchen
Chuen-tu
Lassa
Tibet
Pekin
Yellow Sea
Tsi-nan
Kay-fong
Sun-gan
Queychen
Vichang
Nan-ping
Hang chem
Kinchin
Tayni
Fuchen
Zinkyang
Nan-chang
Kilon
Chusan
Kiusa
Hay
Ho
Tongtsyang
Ya
Sea of Corea
Corea
Yellow Sea
Great Wall
Shen-si
Lyang
Tay-yuen
Sochen
Kara Koram
Usrat
Sandy Desert
Mongols
Parrakolun
Yutsicar
Merghen
Saghalien Ula
Amur R
Tchasi
Niman
EASTERN TARTARY
Saleginsk
Vains k
Nertshinsk
Baikal L.
Yakou
Irkutsk
Idinskoi Ostrog
Wilui R
Olecminskoi Ostrog
Yakutzk
Aldan R
Lena R
Jana R
Indigirka R
Alasea or Tukansk
Zingalaskoe
Chatunskoi Pogost
Wilumskaia Sloboda
Tomsk
Tunk

itſelf againſt 56 ſtorms, till the latter end of September, 1669, made, at laſt, an honourable capitulation. The ſiege coſt the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

Cyprus lies in the Levant ſea, about 30 miles diſtant from the coaſts of Syria and Paleſtine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almoſt an equal diſtance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus, the Cyprian goddeſs; and, during the time of the Cruſades, was a rich flouriſhing kingdom, inhabited by Chriſtians. Its wine, eſpecially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the moſt palatable and the richeſt of all that grows in the Greek iſlands. Nicoſia is the capital, in the midſt of the country, and the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop, indeed, moſt part of the inhabitants of the iſland are Greeks. Famaguſta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the iſland is ſo rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping conſuls reſiding upon it; but the oppreſſion of the Turks have depopulated and impoveriſhed it to ſuch a ſurpriſing degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250l. a year. The iſland produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and alſo cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, ſilk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I. king of England, ſubdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

The iſlands in the Ionian ſea are, Sapienza, Stivali, Zante, Cephalonia, Santamaura, Corfu, Fannu, and others of ſmaller note, particularly Iſola del Compare, which would not deſerve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes. Theſe iſlands in general are fruitful, and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the ſame name, and is a place of conſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, ſtrong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garriſon of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the iſland of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and friendly to ſtrangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that iſland, and the reſidence of the governor-general over all the other iſlands, is a place of great ſtrength, and its circumference above four miles. The Venetians are ſaid to concern themſelves very little about the welfare or government of theſe iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is eſtimated at 50,000, and their manners more ſevere than at Zante.

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# ASIA.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is alſo ſuperior to them in the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of its drugs; the quantity,

tity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems, the richneſs of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons. It was in Aſia, according to the Sacred records, that the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, from whom the race of mankind was to ſpring. Aſia became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, whence the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious goſpel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his diſciples and followers. Here the firſt Chriſtian churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith miraculouſly propagated and cheriſhed even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the firſt empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all theſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; but it muſt be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath loſt much of its ancient ſplendor, and from the moſt populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in Aſia, is become a wild and uncultivated deſart. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their former condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility, as moſt of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education; and the ſymptoms of it are more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the ſame latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies among the Chineſe, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the moſt ſouthern regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed in paſt times by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they are uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended in the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains at preſent three large empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this diviſion of the globe is abſolute monarchy. If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible

for

for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic Iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great meaſure to their own avarice and the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the ſea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the South, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:

| | Nations. | Length | Breadt. | Square Miles. | Chief Cities. | Dist. and bearing fm Lond. | Diff. of time from London. | Religions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tartary. | Ruſſian | The bounds of theſe parts are unlimited, each power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can. | | 3,050,000 | Tobolſk | 2160 N.E. | 4 10 bef. | Ch. & Pag |
| | Chineſe | | | 644,000 | Chynian | 4480 N.E | 8 4 bef. | Pagans |
| | Mogulean | | | 185,350 | Tibet | 3780 E. | 5 40 bef. | Pagans |
| | Independ. | | | 600,000 | Samar<br>Laſſa | 2800 E.<br>4310 | 4 36 bef. | Pagans |
| Turky in Aſia. | China | 1440 | 1600 | 1,105,000 | Peking | 4320 S.E. | 7 24 bef. | Pagans |
| | Moguls | 2000 | 1500 | 1,110,000 | Delhi | 3720 S.E. | 5 16 bef. | Mah. & P |
| | Ind. beyond the Ganges | 2000 | 1000 | 741,500 | Siam<br>Pegu | 5040 S.E. | 6 44 bef. | Pag. & M. |
| | Perſia | 1300 | 1100 | 800,000 | Ispahan | 2460 S.E. | 3 20 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Part of Arab. | 1300 | 1200 | 700,000 | Mecca | 2040 S.E | 2 52 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Syria | 270 | 160 | 29,000 | Aleppo | 186 S.E. | 2 30 bef. | Ch. & Ma |
| | Holy Land | 210 | 90 | 7,600 | Jeruſalem | 1920 S.E. | 2 24 bef. | Ch. & Ma |
| | Natolia | 750 | 390 | 195,000 | Burſa or Smyrna | 1440 S.E. | 1 48 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Diarbeck or Meſopotam. | 240 | 210 | 27,000 | Diarbeck | 2060 S.E | 2 56 bef | Mahometans with ſome few Chriſtians. |
| | Irac, or Chaldea | 420 | 240 | 50,400 | Bagdad | 2240 | | |
| | Turcomania or Armenia | 360 | 300 | 55,000 | Erzerum | 1860 S.E. | 2 44 bef. | |
| | Georgia * | 240 | 180 | 25,600 | Teflis | 1920 E. | 3 10 bef. | |
| | Curdiſtan or Aſſyria | 210 | 205 | 23,900 | Scherazer | 2220 E. | 3 — bef. | Mahom. |

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus, already deſcribed, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are,

| Iſlands. | Towns. | Sq. Miles. | Trade with or belongt. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The Japaneſe iſles — | Jeddo, Meaco | 138,000 | Dutch |
| The Ladrones | Guam — | | Spain |
| Formoſa — | Tai-ouan-fou | 17,000 | China |
| Anian — — | Kiontcheow — | 11,900 | China |
| The Philippines — | Manilla — — | 133,700 | Spain |
| The Molucca or Clove iſles | Victoria fort, Ternate | | Dutch |
| The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles | Lantor — | | Dutch |
| Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (ſurrounding the Molucca & Banda iſles) | Amboyna — | 40 | Dutch |
| | Macaſſer — | 68,400 | Dutch |
| | Gilolo — | 10,400 | Dutch |
| The Sunda iſles (Borneo, Sumatra, Java, &c.) | Borneo, Caytongee | 228,000 | All nations |
| | Achen, Bencoolen | 129,000 | Engliſh and Dutch |
| | Batavia, Bantam | 38,250 | Dutch |
| The Andama & Nicobar iſles | Andaman, Nicobar | | All nations |
| Ceylon — | Candy — | 27,730 | Dutch |
| The Maldives — — | Caridon — — | | All nations |
| Bombay — | Bombay | | Engliſh |
| The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamtſchatka, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians — — — | | | Ruſſia |

* Georgia hath lately put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia.

TURKEY

# TURKEY IN ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1000<br>Breadth 600 | between | 27 and 46 east longitude.<br>28 and 45 north latitude. | 520,820 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circaſſia on the North; by Perſia, on the Eaſt; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and Propontis, which ſeparate it from Europe, on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The eaſtern provinces are | 1. Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea | Baſſora and Bagdad. |
| | 2. Diarbec, or Meſopotamia | Diarbec, Orfa, & Mouſul. |
| | 3. Curdiſtan or Aſſyria | Nineveh and Betlis, |
| | 4. Turcomania or Armenia | Erzerum and Van. |
| | 5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circaſſia | Teflis, Amarchia, & Gonic. |
| Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the Weſt. | 1. Natolia Proper | Burſa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephetus. |
| | 2. Amaſia — — | Amaſia, Trapezond, and Sinope. |
| | 3. Aladulia —— | Ajazzo and Marat. |
| | 4. Caramania ——— | Satalia and Teraſſo. |
| Eaſt of the Levant Sea. | Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land. | Aleppo, Antioch Damaſcus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli. Scanderoon, & Jeruſalem. |

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are famous in ſacred as well as profane writings. The moſt remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucaſus and Ararat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The ſame may be obſerved of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orontes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmoſt degree, and naturally ſalubrious to the human conſtitution, yet ſuch is the equality with which the Author of nature has diſpenſed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Aſia, is often viſited by the plague; a frightful ſcourge of mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly deſtructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their ſuperſtitious belief in a predeſtination, which prevents them from uſing the proper precautions to defend themſelves againſt this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the moſt fertile provinces of Aſia, I need ſcarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmoſt abundance, notwithſtanding the indolence of its owners. Raw ſilk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every ſpecies, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almoſt without culture, which is practiſed chiefly by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in theſe provinces, are highly delicious, and in ſuch

plenty, that they coſt the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is ſaid, in ſome places nothing. Their aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed thoſe of other countries in largeneſs. In ſhort, nature has brought all her productions here to the higheſt perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } The ſame may be ſaid of their animals. The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to theſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels hair and ſilk, though it is now often made with wool and ſilk. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe; but their own butchers meat, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vaſt perfection; their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſwiftneſs in running, and ſtupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh except lampreys, mullets, and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

## OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors: owing to various cauſes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons, and particularly becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men: when young, their complections are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though the generality ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial affections for

for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are with the generality ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals, but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes, where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own or any other country. If a vizir, baſhaw, or other officer is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion, than that there will be a new vizir or governor, ſeldom enquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter.—They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeably converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may commonly be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they ſup at five in the winter, and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, the diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high-ſeaſoned.—Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high-ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though in private many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breaſt. They ſleep in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding, either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependents. Within doors, the cheſs or draught-board are their uſual amuſements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches or drawers are of a-piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their neareſt relation. Such of the women as are virtuous make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, beſides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of ſeraglio of women; but all theſe indulgences are ſometimes inſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a huſband they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet, the author of it; ſome account of whom the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs to be of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt, or mufti, ſeems to have great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS. } The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch, as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male Chriſtians

pay

pay alſo a capitation tax from ſeventeen years old to ſixty, according to their ſtations.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill ſpoken.—A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoſter.

*Pater hemas, opios iſo ces tos ouranous: hagio ſthito to onoma ſou: na erti he baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetcz itzon en te ges os is ton ouranon: to ptſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren: kæ ſi choraſe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, kæ hemas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou: mas adikounkæ men ternes hemais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kaxo.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks, till of late, profeſſed a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The education of the Turks ſeldom extends farther than reading the Turkiſh language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them underſtand aſtronomy, ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; but the number of theſe being very ſmall, they are looked upon as extraordinary perſons.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Theſe are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many volumnious publications, and others are appearing every day. Theſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and ſculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more diſfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a plentitude of curioſities, all that can be done here is to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking; and I ſhall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſplay, according to the beſt judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpreſſibly ſuperb, though diſfigured by two Turkiſh towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilaſters and ſtatues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now ſo ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, ſupported by nine lofty columns, each conſiſting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of thoſe pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the ſordid Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns, for the ſake of the iron. A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pedeſtal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expreſſing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the weſt

of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkiſh moſques and houſes. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon. but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous execution of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before the Chriſtian æra, but without mounting to the ancient times of the Jews or the Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtyle of building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſent a little city, encompaſſed with a wall.—The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houſes built out of the ancient ruins.—A free-ſtone quarry in the neighbourhood, furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one of the ſtones not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our meaſure is 1135 tons. A coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Deſert, is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, abut 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and publiſhed by Mr. Wood, who, with is friends, paid it a viſit ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpecially as he can form no very adaquate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheſt ſtyle, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and disjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Theſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weſtern nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes it original to Solomon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the

the time of Gallienus: Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for ſome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. This it muſt be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved very juſtly, that its architecture, and the proportion of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile that the boaſted antiquities ſhewn by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalen, which is well known to have been ſo often razed to the ground, and rebuilt a-new, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings can be aſcertained; and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade ſtill goes on, though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it, are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the ſame lady, are found in Paleſtine; but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a deſert. Thus oppreſſion ſoon thinned the delicious plains of Italy, and the noted countries of Greece and Aſia the Leſs once the glory of the world, are now nearly deſtitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a ſorry appearance, though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. I ſhall not amuſe the reader with any accounts of the ſpot which is ſaid to have formed Paradiſe, and to have been ſituated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are ſome tracks which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is indeed eaſy to pro-

nounce whether the ſtyle of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but all other information moſt come from their inſcriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Iſmir) contains many valuable antiquities. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical obſervations. The ſeat of Old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its being oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm; and ſome travellers think they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. These are very numerous, and at the ſame time very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Old Alexandria, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preſerves a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turky. It is ſtill the capital of Syria, and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniencies to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. Its houſes, as uſual in the Eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo and its ſuburbs are ſeven miles in compaſs, ſtanding on eight ſmall hills, on the higheſt of which the citadel or caſtle is erected, but of no great ſtrength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, ſurround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Chriſtians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniencies of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct, diſtant about four miles, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. The ſtreets are narrow, but well paved with large ſquare ſtones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio-trees; but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their warehouſes, lodging-rooms, and compting-houſes. This city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very refreſhing, and bazars or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the Eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their ſweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendor and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not uſed here, but perſons of quality ride on horſeback with a number of ſervants before them, according to their rank. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to ſleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and many other parts of the Eaſt,

East, for which reaſon their houſes are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance thoſe nations had with aſtronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains ſome parts of the holy ſcripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkiſh cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far it is ſuppoſed from the ſite of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form an irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being anually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of the air: many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glaſs, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Moſt of the houſes have alſo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a ſmall plantation of orange trees. The number of houſes is computed at 80,000, each of which pay an annual tribute to the Baſhaw, which is calculated to produce 100,000l. ſterling. Their bazars, in which their tradeſmen have their ſhops, are tolerably handſome, large, and extenſive, filled with ſhops of all kinds of merchandiſe, to the number of 12,000. Theſe were erected by the Perſians, when they were in poſſeſſion of the place, as were alſo their bagnios and almoſt every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five moſques, two of which are well built, and have handſome domes, covered with varniſhed tiles of ſeveral colours. Two chapels are permitted for thoſe of the Romiſh and Greek perſuaſions. On the north-weſt corner of the city ſtands the caſtle, which is of white ſtone, and commands the river, conſiſting of curtains, and baſtions, on which ſome large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each baſtion, but in the year 1779 they were ſo honey-combed and bad, as to be ſuppoſed not to ſupport one firing. Below the caſtle, by the water-ſide, is the palace of the Turkiſh governor; and there are ſeveral ſummer-houſes on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh Curdiſtan, though part of it is ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is Curdiſtan, the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan is ſaid to be for the moſt part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of the fine province of Meſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mouſul is alſo in the ſame province, a large place ſituated on the weſt ſhore of the Tigris, oppoſite where Nineveh formerly ſtood.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, now no longer ſubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriſtians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handſome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, by the ſide of the river Kur, and is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, except on the ſide of the river. It has a large fortreſs on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garriſon conſiſts of native Perſians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, ſix of

which belong to the Georgians and the reſt to the Armenians: the Mahometans who are here have no moſques. In the neighbouhood of the city are many pleaſant houſes, and fine gardens. The Georgians in general are by ſome travellers ſaid to be the handſomeſt people in the world; and ſome think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the ſmallpox. They make no ſcruple of ſelling and drinking wines in their capital and other towns; and their valour has procured hem many diſtinguiſhing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Ruſſia and claimed its protection.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a Chriſtian church. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel work, ſuch as ſword-blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture alſo thoſe beautiful ſilks called Damaſks, from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and worked ſilk, roſewater, extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewiſe lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are ſtrong walls on the land ſide of ſtone, eighteen feet high, and ſeven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and half, and Chriſtians and Mahometans make up the number of about 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are ſtill viſible.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amaſia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible; and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themſelves; and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Judea, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in the moſt dreadful colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians†.

Whether

† The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing

Whether thoſe countries of Aſia could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a queſtion with ſome; but I apprehend that it would now be impoſſible (let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent) to divert commerce (without which all attempts of that kind muſt be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no queſtion, that a government leſs brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themſelves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidity. Though they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horſeback, and are ſubject to a thouſand indignities and miſeries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors, yet ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwiſe ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt it ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would conſider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of their government deſtroys that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, and commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind when borne down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſouthern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſituation of their capital upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and communicates on the ſouth with the Mediteranean ſea, thereby opening a paſſage to all the European nations as well as the coaſt of Africa. The ſame ſtrait communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a paſſage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for the largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſoap. The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of drugs, and dying ſtuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their

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thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, ſays he, of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine, ſays Mr. Wood, we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever ſows, is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

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CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Porter, who reſided at the Porte in quality of ambaſſador from his Britannic majeſty, it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic government are conſiderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expence. Even Jews and Chriſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands to the lateſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs or reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether depend on the ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would ſhake the foundations of his throne, which is ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to treſpaſs theſe laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceaſes to be the lawful ſovereign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was deſigned by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted having all the force of religious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obſcure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitutions of the prophet; and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, can tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſhment.

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who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to the exerciſe of arms from their infancy; and there are no leſs than 100,000 foot-ſoldiers, ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtyled by his ſubjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on earth, brother to the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand-ſignior's arms are, vert, a creſcent argent, creſted with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youth who are deſigned for the ſtate, the army, or the navy; but they are ſeldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they riſe by their merit. They are generally the children of Chriſtian parents, either taken in war, purchaſed, or preſents from the viceroys and governors of diſtant provinces, the moſt beautiful, well-made, and ſprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand-ſignior, before they are ſent to the colleges or ſeminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the ſeraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces and Greek iſlands, moſt of them the children of Chriſtian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, hath for ſome years paſt aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both ſexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem, depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had 2000. Achmet had but 300, and the preſent ſultan hath nearly 1600. On their admiſſion they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt cloaths and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called *Katon Kiaja*, or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the laſt that is entered ſerves her who preceded her, and herſelf. Theſe ladies are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand-ſignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are incloſed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quickneſs, and ſome dwarfs who are exhibited for the diverſion of his majeſty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vaſt country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name ſignifies *wanderers*, extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian

Caſpian to the ſtraits of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrines of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom, about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting the holy city of Jeruſalem being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous Cruſades which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and though after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1299, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader; the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, wanderers, or baniſhed men, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be ſtyled the founder of the Turkiſh empire, and was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357, they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janizaries was eſtabliſhed. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring war againſt one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II. took Conſtantinople in 1453. Thus, after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts and families; and the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes, and the weſtern

church, one of their patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he would rather ſee a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conqueſts, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to ſubjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though under grievous oppreſſions, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem: and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than thoſe of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more converſant in trade. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerve ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceed by Bajazet II. who carried on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Perſians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was haraſſed by family differences, and at laſt, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, he was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldeſt brother, Achmet to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Perſians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he turned his arms againſt Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was ſucceeded, in 1520, by his ſon, Soliman the Magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences that prevailed among the Chriſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda the metropolis of Hungary, at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Auſtria and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V.: he miſcarried alſo in an attempt he made to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon, Selim II. In his reign the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors. He was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians, and died of the plague in 1604.

Though

Though his ſucceſſor Achmet was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded, in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Perſians. His brother, Ibrahim, ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs, inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janizaries in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his grand vizir, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for thirty years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A bloody war ſucceeded between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet II. but Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon, and after ſome briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Ruſſian army was ſurrounded without hope of eſcape, the Czarina inclined the grand-vizir to the peace by a preſent of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the army, but the Ruſſians delivered up to the Turks, Aſoph, Kaminieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace, at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but the ſultan alſo was depoſed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recogniſe that uſurper as king of Perſia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious; but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and after that another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was ſucceeded by his brother, Oſman III. who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother, Muſtapha III. who died on the 21ſt of January, 1774, whilſt engaged in an unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians, of which ſome account has been already given in the hiſtory of that country. In the courſe of this war a conſiderable Ruſſian fleet was fitted out, which ſet ſail from the Baltic, with a view of ſhaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca departed from thence in the beginning of February 1770, and ſhaped its courſe for the Morea. Count Orlow, having debarked ſuch land forces as he had with him at Maina,

Maina, which lies a little to the weſtward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the ſouth-weſt of Miſitra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, the deſcendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who ſtill poſſeſſed the country of their anceſtors, under ſubjection to the grand-ſignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Ruſſians by thouſands, from their averſion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Ruſſians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea ſeemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly overrun, and Miſitra, Arcadia, and ſeveral other places, as ſpeedily taken; while the Ruſſian ſhips, that had been ſeparated, or that put into Italy, arrived ſucceſſively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every ſmall detachment ſoon ſwelled to a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time the Greeks gave the utmoſt looſe to their revenge, and every where ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were ſeized, extended itſelf to the iſlands, where alſo the Turks were maſſacred in great numbers. They were indeed unable to make head againſt the Ruſſians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortreſſes. The malecontents had ſo much increaſed ſince the firſt debarkation of the Ruſſians, that they inveſted Napoli de Romania, Corinth, and the caſtle of Patras, with ſeveral other places of note. But whilſt they were employed in theſe enterprizes, an army of thirty thouſand men, compoſed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraſkier, Baſha of Boſnia. This Turkiſh general recovered all the northern part of the peninſula, as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. The Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame time another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by admiral Elphinſtone, arrived from England to reinforce count Orlow's armament. The Turkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia. The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, beſides a number of chebeques and gallies, amounting in the whole to near thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſhips of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, while others on both ſides found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently near. But Spiritof, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultana of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they both fought with the greateſt fury, and at length run ſo cloſe, that they locked themſelves together with grappling-irons and other tackling. In this ſituation, the Ruſſians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, ſet the Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and as they could not now be diſentangled, both ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumſtanced, without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length blew up with a moſt terrible exploſion. The commanders and principal officers on both ſides were moſtly ſaved; but the crews were almoſt totally loſt. The dreadful fate of theſe ſhips, as well as the danger to thoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark, the Turkiſh fleet cut their cables, and run into a bay on the coaſt of Natolia: the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely

pent

pent up, and in the night ſome fire-ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf directed the operations of the fire-ſhips. The fire took place ſo effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few gallies that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch ſucceſs, that a ſhot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus was there ſcarcely a veſtige left at nine o'clock, of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in exiſtence at one the ſame morning.

Some of the principal military tranſactions by land, in the war between Ruſſia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we ſhall here only add, that after a moſt unfortunate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months after the acceſſion of the preſent grand-ſignior, Achmet IV. The late emperor, Muſtapha III. left a ſon, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, Muſtapha appointed his brother, the preſent emperor, to ſucceed him in the throne: and to this prince, under the ſtrongeſt terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant ſon.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than an excellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered their empire ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the janizaries, a corps originally compoſed of children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they ſtill continue the flower of the Turkiſh armies; but the Ottoman power is in a declining ſtate. The political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, is now the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain any longer in the poſſeſſion of theſe haughty infidels.

Abdul Hamed, or Achmet IV. grand-ſignior, born 1719, ſucceeded to the throne of Turkey, January 21ſt, 1774, on the death of his brother: he hath three ſons and three daughters.

# TARTARY IN ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 4000 | between | 50 and 150 East longitude. |
| Breadth | 2400 | | 30 and 72 North latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the North, by the Pacific Ocean on the East, by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy, on the West.

| Grand divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| North-east division | Kamtschatka Tartars | Kamtschatka | |
| | Jakutskoi Tartars | Jakutskoi | |
| South-east division | Bratski | Bratiki | 985,380 |
| | Thibet and Mogul Tartars - | Thibet | |
| | | Poion | |
| | | Kudak | |
| North-west division | Samoieda - - - | Mangasia | |
| | Ostiack - - - | Kortskoi | |
| South-west division | Circassian and Astrachan Tartary - | Terki | |
| | | Astrachan | |
| Middle division | Siberia - - | Tobolsk | |
| | Kalmuc Tartary - | Bokharia | 850,000 |
| | Usbeck Tartary - | Samarcand | 339,840 |

Kamtschatka is a great peninsula, which extends from North to South about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolchereск, Tigilskaia Krepost, Verchnei, or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nisinei, or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, so contiguous to it that they appear like a continuation of the same mountains, which crosses all Asia from Mongalia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Obey, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Genesa or Jenska; the Burrumpooter; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being

ing in the ſame latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſia Lapland are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholeſome; and Mr. Tooke obſerves, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not ſo much addicted to an immoderate uſe of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almoſt to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radiſhes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but ſcarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain: but there is reaſon to believe that induſtry and patience may at length overcome the rudeneſs of the climate. Currants and ſtrawberries of ſeveral ſorts are ſaid to grow here in as great perfection as in the Engliſh gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Aſtrachan, and the ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. The ſummers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is peſtered, and the ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the higheſt in Aſia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives riſe to the rivers of India and China, and thoſe of Siberia, and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones; a ſort of large teeth found here, creates ſome diſpute among the naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious, when poliſhed with art and ſkill.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtrachan there is a bird called by the Ruſſians baba, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them, or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican

The foreſts of Siberia are well ſtocked with a variety of animals, ſome of which are not to be found in other countries. Theſe ſupply the inhabitants with food and cloaths; and, at the ſame time, furniſh them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be conſidered as the

native country of black foxes, ſables, and ermines, the ſkins of which are here ſuperior to thoſe of any part of the world. Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and ſold at low prices.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. We can form no probable gueſs as to the number of the inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumſtances we muſt conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general ſtrong made, ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. The Tartars are in general a wandering ſort of people: in their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery, their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves they are very hoſpitable, and wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidentially put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy, cheerful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern and independent Tartars, and ſome nations of Canada in North America: particularly when any of their people are infirm through great age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions they ſay they do their parents a good office, in ſending them to a better world. Nothwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us, that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle: but when once he was come to the place of their fathers monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in ſhooting at a mark, inſomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will ſplit a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple,

and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves made of deers ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoke, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward to the Japaneſe ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf as it were under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted, which make their cabins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been ſmoked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed in menial duties as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wives who ſucceed to their places; nor is it uncommon, in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The deſcendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are ſtill moſt of them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nations, entirely different from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by ſome Tartars, and ſuch as are converted to Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increaſed ſince it became a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have founded therein a number of towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtanding which it preſents but a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent, it is capable of ſupporting ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains. For the manners and cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to the Ruſſian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars ſomewhat reſembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolaters, and worſhip little rude images dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the moſt remarkable, and the moſt worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only ſubmitted to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract of continent which ſtretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Correa on the ſea of Japan. He is not only the ſovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as ſuperſtition is ever the ſtrongeſt where it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abſolutely regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with

all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worſhip and make rich offerings at his ſhrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die, either of old age or of infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or prieſts, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before by the Tayſhoo Lama, who in authority and ſanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The lamas, who form the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the ſtate, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands; and, beſides, fill up many monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a mountain near the banks of Burumpooter, about ſeven miles from Lahaſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly reſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extenſive, and border on Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his ſight. But they alſo maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheleſs generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with uſing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate and puniſh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many ſuperſtitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are conſidered as beings vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their ſenſual pleaſure, to people the world, and to look after houſehold affairs; and in conſequence of theſe principles, they are treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article among a nation of Tartars: yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtrachan and the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls

ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate, that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The cultivation of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and generally alſo committed to the care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues; and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their ſucceſſors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either ſurrounded ſmall towns, now quite demoliſhed, or were deſigned for the defence of camps, forts, or caſtles, the veſtiges of which are often to be diſcovered upon the ſpot, as well as other traces of decayed importance. Many of them are in tolerable preſervation, and make ſome figure even at preſent. The ſlabode, or Tartarian ſuburb of Kaſimof, on the Oha, ſeems to have been the reſidence of ſome khan. In the midſt of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language *Miſquir*, a ſort of temple, or building dedicated to devotion. Here are alſo the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the maſarets, or burial places, is a very conſiderable mauſoleum: all which edifices are built of hewn ſtone and bricks. From an Arabic inſcription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the hegira, or the 1520th of the Chriſtian æra. Near mount Caucaſus are ſtill very conſiderable remains of Madſchar, a celebrated city of former times. In the environs of Aſtrachan the ruins of ancient Aſtrachan are very viſible; and the rubbiſh and ramparts of another reſpectable town ſtill exiſt near Tzaritzin, on the left ſhore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Cama, which empties itſelf into the above mentioned river, are many ſuperb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, conſiſting of towers, moſques, houſes, and ſepulchres, all built of ſtone or brick. The oldeſt epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the moſt modern at leaſt four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tſcheremtſcham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins ſomewhat more injured by the depredations of time; they are thoſe of Boulymer, an ancient and very conſiderable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the ſmall town of Bilyairſk. In the fortreſs of Kaſan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are ſo broad, that they ſerve at preſent for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn ſtone. Aſcending the river Kaſanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the ſtrong ramparts of the old Kaſan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inſcriptions, and ſeveral ſepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are ſtill ſeen about Tobolſk upon the Irtiſch. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Barâba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratſchik. Not to mention a great number of other cities and ruins of Siberia; and eſpecially all thoſe that are to be met with in the deſert of Kirguis, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and ſilver coins have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg. In 1720, ſays M. Voltaire, in his Hiſtory of Peter the Great, there were found in Calmuc Tartary a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones,

and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be ſaid to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Toboliſk and Aſtrachan are conſiderable cities, the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have alſo lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Ruſſian government.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtracans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two above mentioned conquerors and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories, than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis, or Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. But ſome authors have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of theſe great conquerors, though it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The ſame may be ſaid of Tamerlane, whoſe memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkiſh emperor Bajazet, hath been noticed in the hiſtory of that nation, and great were his conqueſts. His deſcent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia; and it is ſituated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power over ſtrangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horſemen. Their chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions. They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian, or the Turkiſh empires: each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and in

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ſome places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency: and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

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# THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1450<br>Breadth 1260 | between | 20 and 42 North latitude.<br>98 and 123 Eaſt longitude. | 1,105,000 |
| | | Chineſe Tartary. | 644,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Tartary and an amazing ſtone wall on the North; by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from North-America, on the Eaſt; by the Chineſian ſea, ſouth; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on the Weſt

DIVISIONS.] The great diviſion of this empire, according to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, is into fifteen provinces (excluſive of that of Lyau-tong, which is ſituated without the Great Wall, though under the ſame dominion); each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms.

But it is neceſſary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jeſuits, and other religious ſent thither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chineſe word, ſignifying middle, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Crocceus, or Whamboo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

BAYS.] The chief are thoſe of Nanking and Canton.

CANALS.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the ancient Chineſe to the character of a moſt wiſe and induſtrious people. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, renders China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow but for ornament or uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the middle mild, and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniencies, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf: but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, muſt be mentioned.

The tallow-tree has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, ſerves the natives as candles; but they ſmell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of ſome is poiſonous, but affords the fineſt varniſh in the world. After all that can be ſaid of theſe, and many other beautiful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo wedded to their ancient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, which, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw ſilk, which ſo much abounds in China, and above all, the *tea plant* or ſhrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithſtanding

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our long intercourſe with China, writers are ſtill divided about the different ſpecies and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the ſame ſhrub, but that the latter admits of ſome kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, ſinglo, and the like, are occaſioned probably by the nature of the ſoils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant ſeems to be very ſimple; and it is certain that ſome kinds are of a much higher and more delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the fineſt, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Ruſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greateſt is between the bohea and the green.

It is ſuppoſed that the Portugueſe had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh, but it was introduced among the latter before the Reſtoration, as mention of it is made in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life, in 1660. Catharine of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at his court. The *ginſeng*, ſo famous among the Chineſe as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in Britiſh America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities; and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe ſome naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, but we know of no extraordinary quality it poſſeſſes. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is, that of not introducing a ſuperabundancy of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but ſlightly worked, and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] According to ſome accounts, there are fifty-eight millions of inhabitants in China, and all between twenty and ſixty years of age, pay an annual tax. Notwithſtanding the induſtry of the people, their amazing population frequently occaſions a dearth. Parents, who cannot ſupport their female children, are allowed to caſt them into the river; but they faſten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compaſſionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to ſave them from death. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the ſouth ſwarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour.

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The women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment, ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chineſe, to palliate their jealouſy.

To enter into all the ſtarch ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially of their men of quality, when paying or receiving viſits, would give little information, and leſs amuſement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China, looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors to ſuperiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good ſenſe.

The Chineſe in general have been repreſented as the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world: employing their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, eſpecially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great eaſe, particularly the Engliſh; but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a Chineſe. They are fond of law diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes to obtain preferment. It ſhould, however, be remembered, that ſome of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by thoſe who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the ſea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knaviſh and deſigning people. But it ſeems not juſt to attempt to characteriſe a great nation by a few inſtances of this kind, though well atteſted: and we appear not to be ſufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By ſome of the Jeſuit miſſionaries the Chineſe ſeem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

Dress.] This varies according to the degrees among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the faſhion of a bell; thoſe of quality are ornamemted with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and a ſaſh, a coat or gown thrown over them, ſilk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the ſouth wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled. Their dreſs differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open ſleeves. The dreſs both of men and women varies, however, according to the temperature of the climate.

Marriages.] The parties never ſee each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls ſucceſſively, it not unfrequently happens that ſhe will expoſe them on the high roads, or caſt them into a river.

Funerals.] People of note cauſe their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life time. No perſons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpſe ſuffered to be brought into a town, if

a perſon

a perſon died in the country. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one ſyllable; but then each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be eaſily imagined, and enables them to expreſs themſelves very well on the common occaſions of life. The miſſionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of them very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all comprized in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thouſand. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as ſpoken, the latter hath ſtill continued in its original rude, uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvements.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting, and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning, which exiſted among them, was only known to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacs, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe.

The difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chineſe written language, greatly retards the progreſs of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as men of another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly ſink into poverty and obſcurity, if they neglect thoſe ſtudies which raiſed their fathers. It has been obſerved, that there is no nation in the world where the firſt honours of the ſtate lie ſo open to the loweſt of the people, and where there is leſs of hereditary greatneſs. The

Chineſe

Chineſe range all their works of literature into four claſſes. The firſt is the claſs of *King*, or the ſacred books, which contain the principles of the Chineſe religion, morality, and government, and ſeveral curious and obſcure records, relative to theſe important ſubjects. Hiſtory forms a claſs apart; yet, in this firſt claſs, there are placed ſome hiſtorical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others, the *Tekun-tſicou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illuſtrious ſage. The ſecond claſs is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of hiſtory and the hiſtorians. The third claſs, called *Tſu* or *Tſe*, comprehends philoſophy and the philoſophers, and contains all the works of the Chineſe literati, the productions alſo of foreign ſects and religions, which the Chineſe conſider only in the light of philoſophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, aſtronomy, phyſic, military ſcience, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and ſciences in general. The fourth claſs is called *Tcie*, or *Miſcellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chineſe, their pieces of eloquence, their ſongs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chineſe literati in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themſelves leſs to the ſtudy of nature, and to the reſearches of natural philoſophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical ſcience of life, and internal polity and manners. It is ſaid, that it was not before the dynaſty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Chriſt, that the Chineſe philoſophers formed hypotheſes concerning the natural ſyſtem of the univerſe, and entered into diſcuſſions of a ſcholaſtic kind, in conſequence, perhaps, of the intercourſe they had long kept up with the Arabians, who ſtudied with ardour the works of Ariſtotle. And ſince the Chineſe have begun to pay ſome attention to natural philoſophy, their progreſs in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who made uſe of it againſt Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manufactures of ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities preſent themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Lineſung is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air; and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. The artificial curioſities of China are ſtupendous. The Great Wall ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches from the province of Xenſi to the Kang ſea, between the provinces of Peking and Lænotum. It is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well prepared, that though it has ſtood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in the province of Petcheli, to the eaſt of Peking, and almoſt in the ſame latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high.

P. Regis,

P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of theſe provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſis of triangles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains preſent on their tops, temples, monaſteries, and other edifices. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in theſe mountains, ſeem to be fabulous. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſailed up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains, and ſome in the interior parts of the empire are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtyle of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vaſt labour and expence. They are ſaid in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monuments make likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, becauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the diſagreeable taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſneſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable. The laſt curioſity I ſhall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed thoſe of all other nations. In ſhort, every province in China is a ſcene of curioſities. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſuſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing elegance not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and preſents a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be ſaid of theſe more than that ſome of them are immenſe, and there is great reaſon to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary reſidence of the emperors, is ſituated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues diſtant from the Great Wall. It is an oblong ſquare, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, becauſe the houſes were given to the Tartars when the preſent family came to the throne; and they refuſing to ſuffer the Chineſe to inhabit, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a ſhort time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, ſix leagues in compaſs. The walls and gates of Peking are of the ſurpriſing height of fifty cubits, ſo that they hide the whole city; and are ſo broad, that

centinels

centinels are placed upon them on horſeback; for there are ſlopes within the city of conſiderable length, by which horſemen may aſcend the walls; and in ſeveral places there are houſes built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embelliſhed with ſtatues, nor other carving, all their beauty conſiſting in their prodigious height, which at a diſtance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the reſt with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Moſt of the ſtreets are built in a direct line, the largeſt are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The ſhops where they ſell ſilks and china-ware generally take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very agreeable proſpect. Each ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall kind of pedeſtal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the ſeveral commodities he ſells. Theſe being placed on each ſide of the ſtreet, at nearly an equal diſtance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houſes are poorly built in front, and very low, moſt of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one ſtory above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much in the nobleneſs and elegance of the architecture as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly diſpoſed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged with a ſight of the palace and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the buildings ſhines with gilding, paint, and varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhed with every thing that is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raiſed, at proper diſtances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of ſmall vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to have any reſemblance to each other, which diverſity produces a very pleaſing effect. Every valley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lodge one of our greateſt lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of theſe houſes are built with cedar, brought at a vaſt expence, the diſtance of 500 leagues. Of theſe palaces, or houſes of pleaſure, there are more than 200 in this vaſt encloſure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, diſpoſed with ſuch art, as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants, though Nanking is ſaid to exceed it both in extent and population. But Canton is the greateſt port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills,

hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by ſeveral iron gates, and within-ſide of each there is a guard-houſe. The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-ſtones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches. and temples well ſtocked with images. The ſtreets of Canton are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any faſhion is ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in the houſe where they do buſineſs, but either in the city, in the more remote ſuburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all ſuch a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the ſtreets, but in ſhops and places of public buſineſs, nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. The ſhops of thoſe that deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhow, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the ſame ſtreet. It is computed that there are in this city, and its ſuburbs 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading veſſels lying before the city.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lampblack. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. The ancients knew and eſteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity *. The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and flowered gauſes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country where

* The Engliſh in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture ſo generally uſeful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourſelves.

the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that ſince the diſcovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a moſt inſtructive entertaining article, before the conqueſt of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chineſe, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient diſcipline in many reſpects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner; but, at the ſame time, the emperor was conſidered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior, were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. This ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chineſe legiſlators, Confuſius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of ſpeaking and writing different from thoſe of other ſubjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, ſo that they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached.

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquillity, for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulſed, and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men, and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration drove them into arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified by ſaying, that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During thoſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, and it was thus thoſe barbarians, who had great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, and they availed themſelves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

Beſides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chineſe had ſumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of ſubjects, which were very uſeful in preſerving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions likewiſe the mandarins might remonſtrate to the emperor, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects. No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is ſtyled

"*Holy*

"*Holy son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chineſe worſhipped idols, yet their philoſophers and legiſlators had juſter ſentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worſhip of ſenſible objects, only to make them more ſubmiſſive to government. The Jeſuits made little oppoſition to this when they attempted to convert the Chineſe; and ſuffered their proſelytes to worſhip Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confuſius, and the Chineſe legiſlators, introduced a moſt excellent ſyſtem of morals among the people, and endeavoured to ſupply the want of juſt ideas of a future ſtate, by preſcribing to them the worſhip of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Chriſtianity; but as we know little of their religion, but through the Jeſuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous inſtances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chineſe with the Chriſtian religion. Thoſe fathers, it muſt be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progreſs above a century ago in their converſions; but they miſtook the true character of the emperor who was their patron; for he no ſooner found that they were in fact aſpiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exerciſe of their religion; ſince which time Chriſtianity has made no figure in China.

REVENUES.] Theſe are ſaid by ſome to amount to twenty millions ſterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the uſe of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may eaſily be impoſed, as an account of every man's family and ſubſtance, is annually enrolled, and very poſſibly may amount to that ſum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire, than it was before its conqueſt by the eaſtern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the ſeat of his government, and the Tartars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition, which was ſo much in their favour.

This ſecurity, however, of the Chineſe from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at preſent, is the diſuſe of arms. The Chineſe land army is ſaid to conſiſt of five millions of men; but in theſe are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preſervation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is compoſed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned, and other ſmall ſhips, that trade coaſt-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents.

A treatiſe on the military art, tranſlated from the Chineſe into the French language, was publiſhed at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chineſe are well verſed in the theory of the art of war; but caution, and care, and circumſpection, are much recommended to their ge-

nerals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themſelves.

HISTORY.] The Chineſe pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all meaſure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the Scripture chronology aſſigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is ſaid by them to have been the firſt man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Chriſt, 479, hath been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate inveſtigation of this ſubject it appears, that all the Chineſe hiſtorical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Chriſt, are entirely fabulous, compoſed in modern times, unſupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears alſo, that the origin of the Chineſe empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity; and it is certain that the materials for the Chineſe hiſtory are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and conſiſt of the pieces that have been compoſed by the tribunal or department of hiſtory, eſtabliſhed in China, for tranſmitting to poſterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and tranſactions of its ſovereigns. It is ſaid, that all the facts, which concern the monarchy ſince its foundation, have been depoſited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inſpection of government, and with all the precautions againſt illuſion or partiality that could be ſuggeſted. Theſe precautions have been carried ſo far, that the hiſtory of the reign of each imperial family, has only been publiſhed after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound ſecret during the dynaſty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is aſſerted, that many of the Chineſe hiſtorians expoſed themſelves to exile, and even to death, rather than diſguiſe the defects and vices of the ſovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whoſe command the Great Wall was built, in the year 213 before the Chriſtian æra, ordered all the hiſtorical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppoſe his authority, and the changes he propoſed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; ſeveral books were concealed, and eſcaped the general ruin. After this period, ſtrict ſearch was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much induſtry was employed for this purpoſe, it appears that the authentic hiſtorical ſources of the Chineſe, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Chriſt, are very few, and that they are ſtill in ſmaller number for more remote periods. But notwithſtanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chineſe hiſtory, it is ſtill immenſely voluminous, and has been judged by ſome writers ſuperior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preſerved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgement of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was publiſhed in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgment. From theſe materials the abbé Groſier propoſed to publiſh at Paris, in the French language, a General Hiſtory of China, in 12 volumes, 4to. ſome of which have been printed,

printed, and a ſmaller work in 12 volumes, 8vo. by the late Father de Mailla, miſſionary at Peking, hath been juſt concluded and publiſhed.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon ſo copious a ſubject as that of the Chineſe hiſtory; and which, indeed, would be very unintereſting to the generality of European readers. A ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic tranquillity, united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whoſe hiſtory is wrapped up in myſteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the moſt dreadful effects, in proportion as its conſtitution was pacific, and they were attended with the moſt bloody exterminations in ſome provinces; ſo that though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion was more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynaſties, or different tribes and families of ſucceſſion are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conqueſts they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier againſt the arms of thoſe famous Tartars. After their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthleſs emperor, Tſong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refuſed to recogniſe the uſurper, and made a peace with Tſongate, the Manchew prince, who drove the uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, ſo that in effect Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugueſe.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which compoſed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the ſettlement which they had under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a ſmall diſtance from the Caſpian ſea, and in a vaſt body of fifty thouſand families, they paſſed through the country of the Haſacks, and after a march of eight months, in which they had ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-ſixth year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, cloaths, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and paſturage. The year following there was a ſecond emigration of about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted the ſettlements which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſcepire. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone, in four different languages.

# INDIA IN GENERAL.

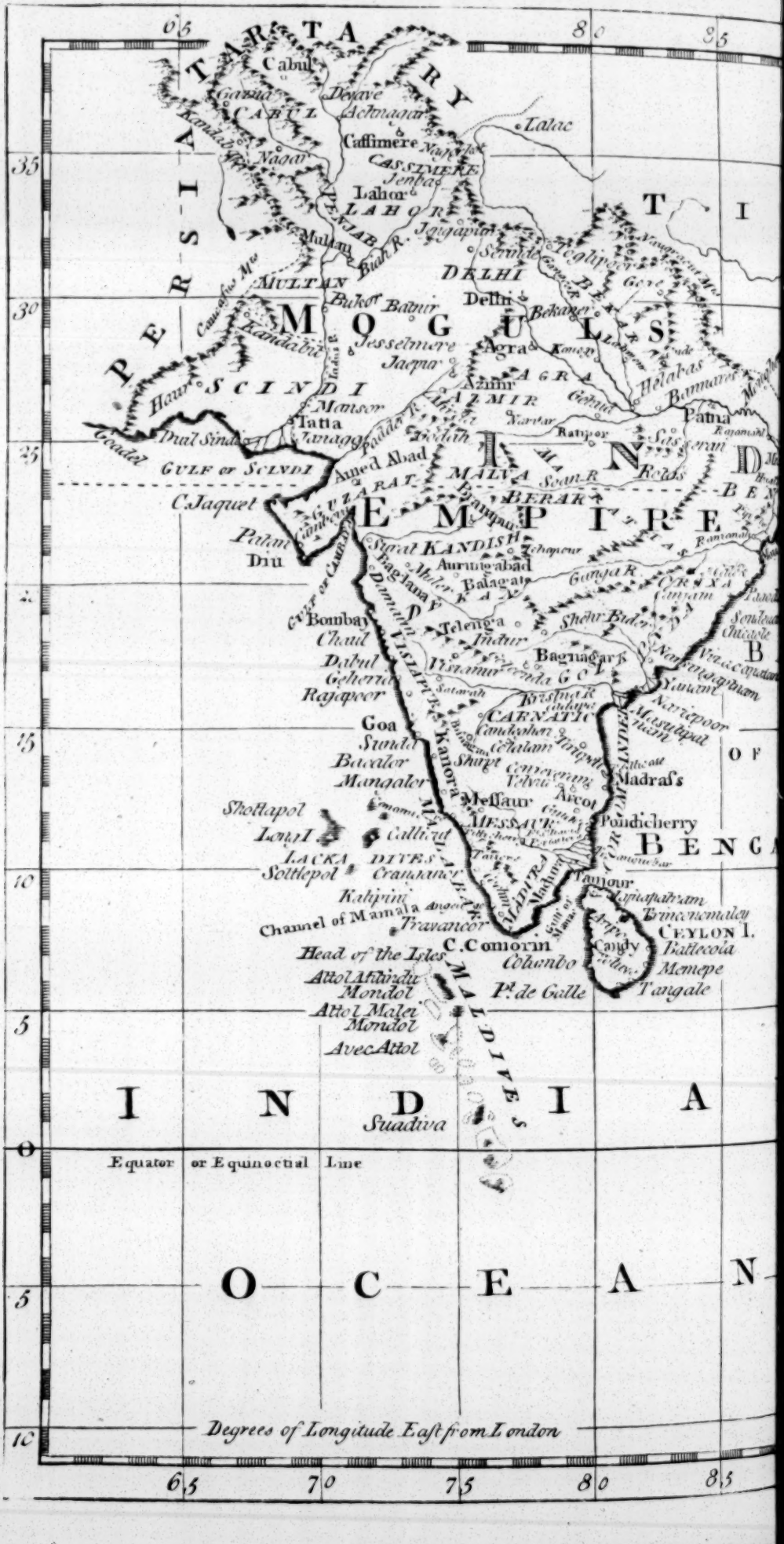
SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES. } THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th degrees of Eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded, on the North, by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the Eaſt, by China and the Chineſe ſea; and on the Weſt, by Perſia and the Indian ſea.

DIVISION.] I ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts; firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges called the Farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extended empires. But it is neceſſary, in order to ſave many repetitions, to premiſe an account of ſome particulars that are in common to thoſe numerous nations, which ſhall be extracted from the moſt enlightened of our modern writers who have viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt India Company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT. } Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic hiſtorian, comprehends the two latter diviſions under the title of Indoſtan. The Mahometans (ſays he) who are called Moors, of Indoſtan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Above half the empire is ſubject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all rights of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the government of Indoſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs of any ſubject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma probably was ſome great and good genius, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for ſo the Gentoo prieſts are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahſtah, which is written in the Shanſcrita language, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins, who ſtudy it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man; in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; ſo that

the


TARTARY
PERSIA
Cabul
CABUL
Candahar
Caffimere
CASSIMERE
Lahor
LAHOR
PENJAB
Multan
MULTAN
Buker
Batnir
Delhi
DELHI
MOGULS
Agra
AGRA
Jesselmere
Jaepur
Azmir
AJMIR
SCINDI
Mansor
Tatta
Dual Sindi
GULF or SCINDI
Amed Abad
GUZARAT
MALVA
BERAR
EMPIRE
INDIA
C. Jaquet
Puliny
Diu
Surat
KANDISH
Aurungabad
Balagate
Bombay
Chaul
Dabul
Geherie
Rajapoor
Goa
Sunda
Barcelor
Mangalor
Shottapol
Lanji
LACKA DIVES
Scittepol
Kahpirin
Channel of Manala
Travancor
C. Comorin
Head of the Isles
Atol Atirdu
Mondol
Atol Malei
Mondol
Avec Atol
Suadiva
MALDIVE Is
Tanjour
Tranquebar
Trincomaley
CEYLON I.
Candy
Colombo
P.de Galle
Batticola
Manepe
Tangale
Madras
Pondicherry
Arcot
Messaur
Velur
Carnatta
Visiapour
Bednore
Ramnad
Madura
Tinivelly
Cape Comorin
Equator or Equinoctial Line
OCEAN
Degrees of Longitude East from London
65
70
75
80
85
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
5
10

# EAST INDIES
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

Marine Leagues
40 80 120 160 200

Jerdin the great or measur'd Coss
66 198 330

CHINA
Quangyang
Yun-nan
Fuchew
Canton
Taywan
Pitchen
Taypin Is.
Yeki
Kouetou
Lekeyo I.
Kumi
Matcha Is
Tropic of Cancer
Cachao
Gulf of Tonquin
Hainam I.
Babuyan Is.
Cagayan
Segovia
Pracel
Cochin China
Camboja
Cambodia
Siam
Bankok
Cemo
Junkseylon
Nicobar Is
Patani
Pulo Ridang
Achen
Pasar Pt.
Natuna
Anamba
Borneo
Sambas
Banjar Massen
Pontiana
Sangtin
Sambobbo
Morotay I.
Gilolo I.
Waigeu I.
Providence I.
New Guinea or Land of the Papoas
Nias I.
Langan
Minton I.
Good Fortune I.
Bergland I.
Nassau I.
Billiton
Isles of Sunda
Decet I.
Straits of Sunda
Batavia
Java
Madura
Flores
Timor
Timor-land
Wesel
Prince I.
Wimmerou Pt.
I. Noussa
I. Banan
East Pt. Lambo
Cumbavan
Sandelbose I.
Mindoro
Samar I.
Leyta I.
Panay
Negros
Zebu
Pimaon I.
Mindanao
Palaos Is
Caffrisin
Angusisin
Meangis Is
St Andrews Pt.
Karcarolang
Salibobbo
Celebes
Moluccas
Spice Is
Bouton
Banda
Ceram
Amboyna
Mixoa I.
Oubi I.
Salawatty I.
St Mathew I.
Macassar
Sand & Gravel
Bates
Pt of New Holland
Philippine Islands
Pacific Ocean

the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of different animals, and various images, and of the moſt hideous figures, either delineated or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The firſt and moſt noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original inſtitution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other profeſſions. The third is the tribe of Beiſe, who are chiefly merchants, brokers, and banias or ſhopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervants; and they are incapable of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank. If any one of them ſhould be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his poſterity are for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri caſt, who are held in utter deteſtation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſt and vileſt offices. This circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dreadful, that any Hindoo will ſuffer the torture, and even death itſelf, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoos are alſo ſubdivided into caſts or ſmall claſſes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of theſe caſts, though ſome have ſuppoſed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the caſts, in a particular city or province, is generally indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himſelf honoured by adopting the cuſtoms of a ſuperior caſt; but this would give battle ſooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a ſuperior caſt with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt. Their marriages are circumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt of their intercourſes; and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each caſt preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to one another. There are ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their uglineſs. All theſe caſts acknowledge the Bramins for their prieſts, and from them derive their belief of the tranſmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themſelves even at the death of a fly, although occaſioned by inadvertence.—But the greater number of caſts are leſs ſcrupulous, and eat, although very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dreſſed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter ſpices, which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they eſteem the cow itſelf almoſt like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happineſs conſiſts in the ſolaces of a domeſtic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indiſpenſible duty in every man, who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion alſo permits them to have ſeveral wives; but they ſeldom have more than one: and it has been obſerved, that their wives are diſtinguiſhed by a decency of demeanour, a ſolicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civilized countries. The

amuſements of the Hindoos conſiſt in going to their pagodas, in aſſiſting at religious ſhews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own ſhores *, nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happineſs, if others had looked on them with the ſame indifference with which they regard the reſt of the world.

The ſoldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them: but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

The cuſtom of women burning themſelves upon the death of their huſbands, ſtill continues to be practiſed, though much leſs frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chineſe; and there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are ſtupendous but diſguſtful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the bramins. If the bramins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they frequently turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they know how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money, and rather than diſcover it, put themſelves to death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which it ſeems is not uncommon, accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that till of late prevailed in Indoſtan.

The reaſons above mentioned account likewiſe for their being leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries. Their perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nou-

* The Gentoos are perſuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kiſtna, and Indus, have the ſacred virtue of purifying thoſe who bathe in them from all pollutions and ſins. This religious idea ſeems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to reſtrain the natives from migrating into diſtant countries: for it is remarkable, that the ſacred rivers are ſo ſituated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of waſhing away their ſins. The Ganges, which riſes in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Viſiapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus bounding the Guzurat provinces, ſeparates Indoſtan from the dominions of Perſia.

riſhment;

riſhment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent ſaying, that it is better to ſit than to walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to wake, and death is the beſt of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indoſtan, are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliſs of Bagdad, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all who profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſubah, who in proceſs of time became almoſt independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government: but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horſes and their ſwords, degenerate into all eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Marattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe were among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. They are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart. But it is probable, that theſe repreſentations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The people of Indoſtan are governed by no written laws: and their courts of juſtice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſubtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſubtenants, even of thoſe lands, are indefeaſible.

Such

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the invaſion of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their own armies and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-maſters, were left to periſh through want.—To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themſelves, and ſome even of the bramins, as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Khan, Indoſtan, from being a well regulated government, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government.—As private aſſaſſinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worſe eſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the late ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive, all that the Engliſh have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guaranties by the preſent lawful emperor, is ſaid to be founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country. We are, however, ſorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the ſervants of the Eaſt India Company towards the natives, and not properly puniſhed or checked by the directors, or the Britiſh legiſlature, has in too many inſtances been highly diſhonourable to the Engliſh name, and totally inconſiſtent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteriſtic.

It may be here proper juſt to obſerve, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both ſexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Perſians and Tartars, on account of the fairneſs of their complexion, reſembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

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## The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 2000 | between | 1 and 30 north latitude. |
| Breadth | 1000 | | 92 and 109 eaſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninſula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chineſe ſea, on the Eaſt; by the ſame ſea and the ſtraits of Malacca, on the South; and by

by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the Weſt. The ſpace between Bengal and China, is now called the province of Mecklus, and other diſtricts ſubject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

| Grand diviſi. | Subdiviſi. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| On the north-weſt. | Acham, Ava, Aracan | Chamdara, Ava, Aracan | 180,000 |
| On the ſouth-weſt. | Pegu | Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30. | 50,000 |
| | Martaban | Martaban | |
| | Siam | Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18. | 170,000 |
| | Malacca | Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2-12. | 48,000 |
| On the north-eaſt. | Tonquin | Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30 | 112,000 |
| | Laos | Lanchang. | 59,400 |
| On the ſouth-eaſt. | C. China | Thoanoa | 61,900 |
| | Cambodia | Cambodia | 60,200 |
| | Chiampa | Padram. | |

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was the beſt known to the Perſians. The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, ſome preferring that of the ſouthern, and ſome that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in ſome places moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. The climate is ſubject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, ſo that the people build their houſes upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of ſeaſons, but wet and dry. Eaſterly and weſterly *monſoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from North to South almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are Senpoo or Burrumpooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river *Nou Kian*.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The ſoil of this peninſula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables. It abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, ſaid to be owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by

by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacker houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs, which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green: and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the beſt countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dogs fleſh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king is ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, eaſily and comfortably. Almoſt every houſe-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azemeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthern diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula are extremely groſs, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels of gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future life. The people in this peninſula are commonly very fond of ſhew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are delicate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathſome; for beſides dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people of Aracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatment of the ſick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, the celebrating of feſtivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, but in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already obſerved, interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Bramins, who are the tribe of the prieſthood, deſcend from thoſe Brachmans who are mentioned to us with ſo much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philoſophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their anceſtors; as prieſts, their religious doctrines are ſtill implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the ſource of all the knowledge which exiſts in Indoſtan. But the utmoſt ſtretch of their mathematical knowledge ſeems to be the calculation of eclipſes. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatiſes on rhetoric; their ideas of muſic, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no aſſiſtance from the knowledge of anatomy, ſince diſſections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Aſiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction

diction of their hiſtorians very diffuſe and verboſe: but though the manner of eaſtern compoſitions differs from the correct taſte of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Aſiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow obſerves, that in the Shanſcrita, or learned language of the Bramins, which is the grand repoſitory of the religion, philoſophy, and hiſtory of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in proſe, which treat of the ancient Indians and their hiſtory. The ſame writer alſo remarks, that the Shanſcrita records contain accounts of the affairs of the Weſtern Aſia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have tranſmitted to poſterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally ſo much prejudiced againſt the hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow obſerves, that the ſmall progreſs, which correctneſs and elegance of ſentiment and diction have made in the Eaſt, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patroniſed men of letters with more generoſity and reſpect than the Mahometan emperors of Indoſtan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which muſt aſtoniſh Europeans, but an infallible road for riſing to the firſt offices of the ſtate. The character of the learned was at the ſame time ſo ſacred, that tyrants, who made a paſtime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other ſubjects, not only abſtained from offering violence to men of genius, but ſtood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different countries of this peninſula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture their ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, the people are more induſtrious, and better workmen, than moſt of the Europeans; and in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, it is ſaid, that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is ſtill very conſiderable; that of the French has for ſome time declined; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES. } This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the kingdoms that form this peninſula. In Azem, I have already obſerved, the king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver: he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul, his capital is Ghergong, or Kirganus. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently ſubject to the kings of Aracan; and that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive ſilver in return. Aracan lies to the ſouth of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, ſubject to the chief king, who reſides

reſides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, ſeven idols caſt in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Pegu is about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the ſtate of a dependant province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu. We know little of the kingdom of Ava. It is ſaid, the honours the king aſſumes are next to divine. His ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels, rubies and ſapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Pegu. In thoſe kingdoms, and indeed in the greateſt part of this peninſula, the doctrines of the grand lama of Thibet prevail, as well as thoſe of the Bramins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay; but that is now ſubject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the Eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam has been often deſcribed by miſſionaries and pretended travellers in the moſt romantic terms; and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, farther than that it is a rich and flouriſhing kingdom, and that it approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickneſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants, very near to the Chineſe. The kingdom of Siam is ſurrounded by high mountains, which, on the eaſt ſide, ſeparate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the weſt, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly from, Jangoma; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and has the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both ſexes are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins, or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. We are told that gold is ſo abundant in this country, that their moſt ponderous images are made of it; and that it is ſeen in vaſt quantities on the outſide of the king's palace. Theſe relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other miſſionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either exceſſively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that covers wooden or other materials. The government here is extremely deſpotic; even ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarins are proſtrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely a ſixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam, and 12 miles from the ſea, it is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be the real maſters

maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peniuſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus or Peninſula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the Eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious, ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling kind of trade in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles; and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant; but is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, the deſpotiſm of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China, lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe; and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt Indies; but at the ſame time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all thoſe rich countries were peopled from China, or at leaſt that they had, ſome time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became ſo large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reſerving to itſelf a kind of feudal ſuperiority over them all.

Tonquin

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been ſaid, unleſs we adopt the fictions of the popiſh miſſionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which was attended by a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt and the repreſentative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without the permiſſion of the chouah.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital Cachao, which is ſituated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing houſe on the north ſide of the city, conveniently fitted up with ſtore-houſes and office-houſes, a noble dining-room, and handſome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The poſſeſſion of rubies, and other precious ſtones of an extraordinary ſize, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, convey among thoſe credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has ſometimes occaſioned bloody wars. After all, it muſt be acknowledged, that however dark the accounts we have of thoſe kingdoms may be, yet there is ſufficient evidence to prove, that they are immenſely rich in all the treaſures of nature; but that thoſe advantages are attended with many natural calamities, ſuch as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempeſts, and above all, rapacious and poiſonous animals, which render the poſſeſſion of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

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# INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT, including the Peninſula weſt of the Ganges.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 2000 | between | 7 and 40 north latitude. |
| Breadth 1500 | | 66 and 92 eaſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the ſame and Perſia, on the Weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan properly ſo called.

Grand

| Grand Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut | Bengal Proper | Calcutta |
| | | Fort William (English) |
| | | Hugley (English) |
| | | Dacca (English) |
| | | Malda, English and Dutch |
| | | Chatigan |
| | | Cassumbazar |
| | Naugracut | Naugracut |
| | Jesuat | Rajapour |
| | Patna | Patna |
| | Necbal | Necbal |
| | Gore | Gore |
| | Rotas | Rotas |
| The north-west division on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus | Soret | Jaganal |
| | Jesselmere | Jesselmere |
| | Tata, or Sinda | Tata |
| | Bucknor | Bucknor |
| | Moultan | Moultan |
| | Haican | Haican |
| | Cabul | Cabul |
| The middle division | Candish | Medipour |
| | Berar | Berar |
| | Chitor | Chitor |
| | Ratipor | Ratipor |
| | Navar | Navar |
| | Gualeor | Gualeor |
| | Agra | Agra |
| | Delhi | DELHI, E. lon. 76-30. lat. 29. |
| | Lahor, or Pencah | Lahor |
| | Hendowns | Hendowns |
| | Cassimere | Cassimere |
| | Jengapour | Jengapour |
| | Asmer, or Bando | Asmer |

The British nation possess in full sovereignty, the whole soubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar. In Orissa or Orixa, only the districts of Midnapour. The whole possessions contain about 150,000 square miles, and 10 millions of people. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges from its entry on the plains to the sea, which by its winding course is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus and Naugracot, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balegaut which run almoſt the whole length of India, from north to ſouth, they are ſo high as to ſtop the weſtern monſoon; the rains beginning ſooner on the Malabar, than they do on the Coromandel coaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Indus called by the natives Sinda and Sindeh, and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and, as obſerved in p. 680, held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Beſides thoſe rivers, many others water this country:

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian ocean; the bay of Bengal; the gulf of Cambaya; the ſtraits of Ramanakoel; Cape Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and have only to add, to what I have ſaid of their religion and ſects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practiſing the greateſt auſterities; but many of them are impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but moſt of them are vagabonds and impoſtors, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians, who are ſo called from their affected innocence of life, ſerve as brokers, and profeſs the Gentoo religion, or ſomewhat like it.

The Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcribed in Perſia, but are a moſt induſtrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which ſome Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw light upon ancient hiſtory both ſacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of theſe books that have been publiſhed; but ſome are of opinion that the whole is a modern impoſture, founded upon ſacred, traditional, and profane hiſtories. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is ſaid only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the field. They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and juggiers; of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chuſe to work in the open air; and the inſides of the houſes belonging to principal perſons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleaſant, and many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been deſcribed, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks, the largeſt of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes

cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. The province of Agra is the largeſt in all Indoſtan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greateſt city, and its caſtle the largeſt fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the Engliſh have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewiſe the capital of Indoſtan. It is deſcribed as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the uſual magnificence of the Eaſt. Its ſtables formerly contained 12,000 horſes, brought from Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the ſeaſon, as is often the caſe, theſe horſes are ſaid to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and ſugar, and in the evening with rice milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindia, is a large city; and it is ſaid that a plague which happened there in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in ſilk and cotton. It is ſtill famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being uſually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month each, out of which they maintain themſelves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their ſituation, are enabled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horſes.

The province of Caſſimere, being ſurrounded with mountains, is difficult of acceſs, but when entered, it appears to be the paradiſe of the Indies. It is ſaid to contain 100,000 villages, to be ſtored with cattle and game, without any beaſts of prey. The capital (Caſſimere) ſtands by a large lake; and both ſexes, the women eſpecially, are almoſt as fair as the Europeans, and are ſaid to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt provinces in the Indies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Indoſtan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indoſtan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been conquered, and though they ſubmit to the moguls, live in an eaſy, independent ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. It is eſteemed to be the ſtorehouſe of the Eaſt Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry, and other trees. Its callicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world: and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of

commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both ſides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, caſtles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worſhip of the Gentoos is practiſed in its greateſt purity, and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithſtanding their religion, are ſaid by ſome to be laſcivious and enticing.

The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is ſituated on the river Hugley, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops; but the ſervants of the company have provided themſelves with an excellent houſe, and moſt convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itſelf has been in fact for ſome time in poſſeſſion of the company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. But in 1773 an act of parliament was paſſed to regulate the affairs of the Eaſt India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act a governor-general and four counſellors were appointed, and choſen by the parliament, with whom was veſted the whole civil and military government of the preſidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government, of all the territorial acquiſitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſo long as the company ſhould remain poſſeſſed of them. The governor-general and council ſo appointed, are inveſted with the power of ſuperintending and controlling the government and management of the preſidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correſpond with them. The governor-general and counſellors are likewiſe empowered to eſtabliſh a court of judicature at Fort-William; to conſiſt of a chief juſtice, and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majeſty; theſe are to exerciſe all criminal, admiralty, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort-William, and its limits; and the factories ſubordinate thereto. But the eſtabliſhment of this ſupreme court does not appear to have promoted either the intereſts of the Eaſt India company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and cuſtoms of the natives: acts of great oppreſſion and injuſtice have been committed; and the ſupreme court has been a ſource of great diſſatisfaction, diſorder, and confuſion. For the ſubſequent regulations of the Eaſt India territories and company, we refer to our account of the Hiſtory of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The India nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and inveſted Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and ſome of the principal perſons of the place, threw themſelves, with their chief effects, on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained, for ſome hours bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects into a little but ſecure priſon, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from almoſt all communication of free air. Their miſeries during the night were inexpreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation,

which was generally attended with a horrible phrenſy. Among thoſe ſaved was Mr. Holwel himſelf, who has written a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe. The inſenſible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plaſſey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Surajah Dowla, in whoſe place Mhir Jaffeir, one of his generals, who had previouſly ſigned a ſecret treaty with Clive to deſert his maſter, and amply reward the Engliſh, was advanced of courſe to the ſoubahſhip.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna or Moorthedabad; and Benares, lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity.

Chandenagore is the principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and alſo was taken the laſt war, but reſtored by the peace. Hugley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugley, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is ſaid to be the largeſt city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an Engliſh and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or ſubah of Malva, which lies to the weſt of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief cities are Ratiſpor, Ougein, and Indoor. The province of Candiſh includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flouriſhing city, and carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs. Catrack is the capital of Orixa.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the Peninſula Within the Ganges. Thoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the peninſula itſelf.

HISTORY.] The firſt invader of this country, worthy to be noticed, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Zinghis Khan alſo directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor forſake his capital; and long before Tamerlane, Mahometan princes had entered, made conqueſts, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in India. Valid, the ſixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who aſcended the throne in the 708th year of the Chriſtian æra, and in the 90th of the hegira, made conqueſts in India; ſo that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, ſon of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province ſeparated by mountains from the north-weſt parts of India, and ſituated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the ſword into Indoſtan, in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Chriſtian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treaſures, demoliſhing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his

route. The wealth found by him in Indoſtan is repreſented to be immenſe. The ſucceſſors of this Mahmoud are called the dynaſty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themſelves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Koſrou Schah, the 13th and laſt prince of the Gaznavide race, was depoſed by Kuſſain Gauri, who founded the dynaſty of the Gaurides, which furniſhed five princes, who poſſeſſed nearly the ſame dominions as their predeceſſors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predeceſſor Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treaſures. But an Indian, who had been rendered deſperate by the pollutions and inſults to which he ſaw his gods and temples expoſed, made a vow to aſſaſſinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finiſhed in the year 1212, in the perſon of Mahmoud, ſucceſſor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was alſo cut off by the ſwords of aſſaſſins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, deſcending more terrible than all its inundations from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucaſus. This invincible barbarian met with no reſiſtance ſufficient to juſtify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immenſe ſlaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himſelf lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The hiſtory of the ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indoſtan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variouſly repreſented, but all agree in the main, that they were magnificent and deſpotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been already obſerved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces. At length the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667 though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninſula Within the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already ſaid of this empire, Aurengzebe ſeems to have left too much power to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which, while in his hands, preſerved the tranquillity of his empire; but when it deſcended to his weak indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh him publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of ſeventeen years of age, after

impriſoning

impriſoning and ſtrangling Furrukhſir. The young emperor proved diſagreeable to the brothers, and being ſoon poiſoned, they raiſed to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indoſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil poſſeſſion of the empire, but died in 1719. He was ſucceeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shaw, and entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to deſtroy the other brother; but he no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the ſultan Ibrahim, another of the mogul princes, emperor. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shaw, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Indoſtan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Indoſtan in 1739. Beſides thoſe treaſures, he obliged the Mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe too ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had raiſed all the money he could in Delhi, he reinſtated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the ſovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ſoon after enſued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-weſt of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being aſſaſſinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treaſurer, an unprincipled man, but poſ-

ſeſſed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confuſion occaſioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army and march againſt Delhi with fifty thouſand horſe. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi, made the means of continuing thoſe miſeries of war which it had at firſt brought upon them. Prince Ahmed Shah, the Mogul's eldeſt ſon, and the vizir, with other leading men, in this extremity took the field, with eighty thouſand horſe, to oppoſe the invader. The war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and Mahomed Shah died before its termination. His ſon, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Marattas, a warlike nation, poſſeſſing the ſouth-weſtern peninſula of India, had, before the invaſion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout, or tribute from the empire, ariſing out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being with-held, in conſequence of the enfeebled ſtate of the empire, the marattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claims to jaghires and to diſtricts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every ſpecies of domeſtic confuſion. Ahmed Shah reigned only ſeven years, after which much diſorder and confuſion prevailed in Indoſtan, and the people ſuffered great calamities. At preſent, the imperial dignity of Indoſtan is veſted in Shah Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble, the city of Delhi, and a ſmall territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the houſe and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, and whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him, as his authority is the beſt legal guarantee.

It is, however, the intereſt of the Eaſt India Company, that their governments in India ſhould interfere as little as poſſible in the domeſtic or national quarrels of the country powers, and that they ſhould always endeavour to be in a ſtate of peace and tranquillity with their neighbours. But theſe maxims of ſound policy they have not adhered to; the governors and ſervants of the Eaſt India Company have unneceſſarily, and ſometimes very iniquitouſly, embroiled themſelves with the country powers, and engaged in wars of a very pernicious and indefenſible nature. The wars into which they lately entered with the Marattas, and with that enterprizing prince Heyder Ally, have been attended with an enormous expence, and been extremely prejudicial to the intereſts of the company. By temporary plans of violence and injuſtice, and ſometimes diſregarding their own treaties, they have forfeited the good opinion of the natives; and by exciting the indignation of the country princes againſt them, greatly leſſened the ſecurity of the poſſeſſions of the company.

As to the government and conſtitution of Indoſtan, we muſt refer to what we have already obſerved. The emperor of Indoſtan, or Great Mogul (ſo called from being deſcended from Tamerlane the Mongul or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement to the throne, aſſumes ſome grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the world; the Ornament of the throne, &c.*" but he is never crowned.

# THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

| Grand divisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel. | Madura | Madura | 16,400 |
| | Tanjour, East side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic | Tanjour | 83,550 |
| | | Tranquebar, Danes | |
| | | Negapatam, English | |
| | | Bisnagar | |
| | | Porta-nova, Dutch | |
| | | Fort St. David, English | |
| | | Pondicherry, Conymere, French | |
| | | Goblon | |
| | | Sadraspatan, Dutch | |
| | | St. Thomas, Portuguese | |
| | | Fort St. George or Madras, E. lon. 80-32. N. lat. 13-11. English | |
| | | Pellicate, Dutch | |
| | Golconda | Golconda | 62,100 |
| | | Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines | |
| | | Masulipatan, English and Dutch | |
| | | Vizigapatan, English | |
| | | Bimlipatan, Dutch | |
| | Orixa | Orixa | |
| | | Ballasore, English | |
| The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar. | West side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic | Negapatan, Dutch | 83,040 |
| | | Anjengo, English | |
| | | Cochin, Dutch | |
| | | Calicut, Tillichery, English | |
| | | Canannore, Dutch | |
| | | Monguelore, Bassilore, Dutch and Portuguese | |
| | | Raolconda, diamond mines | |
| | Decan, or Visiapour | Cawar, English | |
| | | Goa, Portuguese | |
| | | Rajapore, French | |
| | | Dabal, English | |
| | | Dundee, Shoule, Portuguese | |
| | | Bombay, isle and town, English, 19-18. N. lat. 73-6 E. lon. | |
| | | Bassaim, Portuguese | |
| | | Salsette, English | |

Grand

| Grand diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar | Cambaya, or Guzarat | Damon, Portugueſe | |
| | | Surat, E. lon. 72-25. N. lat. 21-10 | |
| | | Swalley | |
| | | Barak, Engliſh and Dutch | |
| | | Amedabat | |
| | | Cambaya | |
| | | Dieu, Portugueſe. | |

RIVERS.] The Cattack or Mahanada, the Soane and Nerbudda, the Pudder, and the famous Kiſtna.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, renders it winter on one ſide of this peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which, with continual rains, laſts four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon and the change of the monſoons begins on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but it is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other part of the Eaſt Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from hence has been, ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government; but, beſides thoſe ſoubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are deſcendants of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as being independent on the Mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC, AND PRIVATE.] From what has been ſaid above, this peninſula is rather to be divided into great governments, or ſoubahſhips, than into provinces. One ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I ſhall ſpeak of thoſe provinces, as belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coaſt, the two great objects of Engliſh commerce in that country; and firſt, of the eaſtern, or Coromandel coaſt.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthernmoſt point of the peninſula. It is about the bigneſs of the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to have been governed by a ſovereign king, who had under him ſeventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying

ing him a tax; now the case is much altered, the prince being scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Tritchinopoli. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the last war, and confirmed to the English by the late treaty of peace: the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visiapour; and on the south by the kingdoms of Mesaur and Tanjour; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Bisnagar, and of our Ally, the nabob, Arcot. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East Indies, but which hath been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India Company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, and enclosing the contents by pallisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, extending about 40 miles round, is of little value for its product; 80,000 inhabitants of various nations are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon his coast within these thirty years; but some of these fortunes appear to have been obtained by the most iniquitous practices. There seems to have been some fundamental errors in the constitution of the East India Company. The directors considered the riches acquired by their governors and other servants as being plundered from the company, and accordingly sent out superintendants to control their governors and overgrown servants; and have from time to time changed their governors, and members of the council there. As this is a subject of the greatest importance that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial

mercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The Engliſh Eaſt India Company, through the diſtractions of the Mogul empire, the ſupport of our government, and the undaunted, but fortunate ſucceſſes of their military officers, have acquired ſo amazing a property in this peninſula, and in Indoſtan, that it is ſuperior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and ſome of their own ſervants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions ſterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while ſuffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it ariſes, is beſt known to the company; part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is ſecured on mortgages, for diſcharging their expences in ſupporting the intereſts of their friends, the emperor, and the reſpective ſoubahs and nabobs they have aſſiſted.

Be this as it may, this company has exerciſed many rights appropriated to ſovereignty; ſuch as thoſe of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Theſe powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the Engliſh miniſtry and parliament have repeatedly interfered, in order to regulate the affairs of the company, and a board of control at home is at length eſtabliſhed. It has alſo been hoped, that, in conſequence of this interference of the government, ſuch meaſures may be taken with the Eaſtern princes and potentates, as may render the acquiſitions of the company permanent and national. But it is much to be regretted, that as the government has thought proper to interfere in the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, it has not alſo taken ſome meaſures to puniſh thoſe many and infamous inſtances of oppreſſion, injuſtice, and cruelty, of which the ſervants of the company have been guilty. As to the ſupreme court lately eſtabliſhed at Calcutta, it has not anſwered the purpoſes for which it was appointed; it has been equally complained of by the ſervants of the company, and by the natives; many of the latter have been grievouſly harraſſed by it, who were not amenable to its juriſdiction; nor has that regard been paid to their manners and cuſtoms, which both juſtice and policy required.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the ſervants of the company often embroiled them, ſhared the Carnatic with the nabob of Arcot. In the laſt war he took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the concluſion of the war. He is ſaid to be a native of his province of Meſſar, or Myſore, which lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Carnatic; and the Chriſtians of the apoſtle St. Thomas live at the foot of the mountains Getti, that ſeparate Meſſar from Malabar. Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, beſides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapneſs of its proviſions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is ſubject to a prince, called the Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raiſe 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda. Eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Golconda lies Maſulipatan, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatan, on this coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore. The province of Orixa, from whence the Engliſh company draw ſome part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 550 miles,

and

and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booſlah, and his brother, allies to the Maratras. In this province ſtands the temple of Jagaryunt, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone, of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent the eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermillion.

The country of Deccan comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome kingdoms; particularly thoſe of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and government of thoſe provinces, are extremely unſettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, are ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their ſituation and extent, but we are told that the principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabad or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Indoſtan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain about two leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural rock, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the eaſt of Golconda; and its capital, Beder, contains a garriſon of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Baglana lies to the weſt of Telenga, and forms the ſmalleſt province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portugueſe territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues ſouth of Surat, and extends almoſt twenty leagues to the north of Goa. Viſiapour is a large province, the weſtern part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portugueſe poſſeſſions. The rajah of Viſiapour is ſaid to have had a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 ſoldiers. The capital is of the ſame name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim Trapor or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahhpur, Dabul-Rajupur, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portugueſe have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is ſaid to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid, in wealth, to vie with the richeſt towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues diſtant lies Surat, where the Engliſh have a flouriſhing factory.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its ſituation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs. The beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt India company; and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman Catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueſe, and what are called popiſh Meſtizos and Canarins; the former

former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have fallen upon methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not an agreeable reſidence. The reader ſcarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative poſts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland are commanded by Engliſh officers: and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt Indies, called Sepoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000, of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural ſize, cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portugueſe. Beſides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the ſtone; one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgment of Solomon; beſides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueſe ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies, lies about thirty miles ſouth of Vingurla. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs. It has one of the ſtrongeſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, and was ſurpaſſed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits upon this iſland equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions on this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the ancient ſplendor of the government. The rich peninſula of Salſett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueſe territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The Engliſh factory of Corwar is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthy of any upon the Malabar coaſt. Canora lies about forty miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Kanorines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of Rajah; and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civilized of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the old ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itſelf is rich and fertile, but peſtered with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itſelf. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Kannamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellicherry, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of thirty or forty ſoldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portugueſe have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthernmoſt part of this peninſula, though

though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on the other ſide they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurpriſing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are conſtantly at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

Before I take my leave of India, it may be proper to obſerve, that in the diſtrict of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like diſcoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

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# PERSIA.

## Situation and Extent.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1300<br>Breadth 1100 | between | 44 and 70 Eaſt longitude.<br>25 and 44 North latitude. | 800,000 |

Boundaries.] MODERN Perſia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which divide it from Circaſſian Tartary, on the North-Weſt; by the Caſpian ſea, which divides it from Ruſſia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary, on the North-Eaſt; by India, on the Eaſt; and by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the Weſt.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India are Choraſan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eſterabad; Sableuſtan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigiſtan, the ancient Drangiana. The ſouthern diviſion contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedroſſia, and Farſiſtan, the ancient Perſia. The ſouth-weſt diviſion, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chuſiſtan, the ancient Suſiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-weſt diviſion, lying between the Caſpian ſea and the frontiers of Turkey in Aſia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, and Daghiſtan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

Name.] Perſia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perſeus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae. Leſs fabulous authors ſuppoſe it derived from Paras, which ſignifies a horſeman; the Perſians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

Air.] In ſo extenſive an empire this is very different. Thoſe parts which border upon Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, and the mountains near the Caſpian

Caſpian ſea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of thoſe mountains which are commonly covered with ſnow. The air in the midland provinces of Perſia is ſerene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the ſouthern provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which are ſo often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe vary like the air. The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caſpian ſea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially their dates, oranges, piſtachio-nuts; melons, cucumbers, and garden ſtuff, not to mention vaſt quantities of excellent ſilk; and the gulf of Baſſora formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Iſpahan eſpecially, produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from ſome of them, the roſes eſpecially, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as ſome nations in Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſa-fœtida flows from a plant called hilrot, and turns unto a gum. Some of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauces of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and the vaſt collection of mountains called Taurus, and their diviſions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been obſerved, that no country, of ſo great an extent, has ſo few navigable rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſe in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian ſea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the weſt.

WATER.] The ſcarcity of rivers, in Perſia, is joined to a ſcarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Perſia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoiſe ſtones, which are found in Choraſan. Sulphur, ſalt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have alſo been diſcovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impoſſible to ſpeak with any certainty concerning the population of a country ſo little known as that of Perſia. If we are to judge by the vaſt armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raiſed there, the numbers it contains muſt be very great. The Perſians of both ſexes are

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Caſpian ſea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of thoſe mountains which are commonly covered with ſnow. The air in the midland provinces of Perſia is ſerene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the ſouthern provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which are ſo often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe vary like the air. The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caſpian ſea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially their dates, oranges, piſtachio-nuts; melons, cucumbers, and garden ſtuff, not to mention vaſt quantities of excellent ſilk; and the gulf of Baſſora formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Iſpahan eſpecially, produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from ſome of them, the roſes eſpecially, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as ſome nations in Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſa-fœtida flows from a plant called hilrot, and turns unto a gum. Some of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauces of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and the vaſt collection of mountains called Taurus, and their diviſions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been obſerved, that no country, of ſo great an extent, has ſo few navigable rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſe in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian ſea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the weſt.

WATER.] The ſcarcity of rivers, in Perſia, is joined to a ſcarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

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of their women than the Turks, and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dextrous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts; and privately play at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadee, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes; and he becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia declares, that, amongſt thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty during the time agreed upon.

Religion.] The Perſians are Mahometans of the ſect of Ali; for which reaſon the Turks, who follow the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with ſome Bramin ſuperſtitions. When they are taxed by the Chriſtians with drinking ſtrong liquors, as many of them do, they anſwer very ſenſibly "You Chriſtians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing ſins, which is the very caſe with us." Having mentioned the Bramins, the compariſon between them and the Perſian *guebres* or *gaurs*, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaſter, may be highly worth a learned diſquiſition: that both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be eaſily proved; but the Indian Bramins and Parſes accuſe the Gaurs, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualized thoſe ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene of the Guebres devotions. It muſt be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very ſurpriſing inflammatory qualities, and contains ſeveral old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire, which riſes from the end of a large hollow cane ſtuck into the ground, reſembling a lamp burning with very pure ſpirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs, who were baniſhed out of Perſia by Shah Abbas. Their ſect, however, is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Perſians and the Romans, ſeem early to have driven the ancient Chriſtians into Perſia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many ſects are found that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm; and are numerous towards the Perſian gulf. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians, who are very numerous in Perſia. The preſent race of Perſians are ſaid to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing partly to their late wars with the Turks.

Language.] It has been diſputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had not their language from the Perſians; but this chiefly reſts on the

the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Perſian language, and the deciſion ſeems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, eſpecially towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian Sea, ſpeak Turkiſh; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia, under the caliphate, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. Many of the learned Perſians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as the modiſh language, as we do the French. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian gulf, and in Iſpahan; but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages. Their Pater-noſter is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kih der oſmoni; pak baſehed mâm tu; bayayed padſchahi tu; ſchwad chwáaſte tu henzjunáaukih der oſmon niz derzemín; béh mára jmrouz nân keſáf rouz mara; wadargudſar mara konâhan ma zjunankihma niz mig ſarim ormán mara; wador ozmajiſch minedázzmara; likin chalás kun mara ez eſcherir.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perſians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the Eaſt. There is a manuſcript at Oxford, containing the lives of an hundred and thirty-five of the fineſt Perſian poets. Ferduſi and Sadi were among the moſt celebrated of the Perſian poets. The former compriſed the hiſtory of Perſia in a ſeries of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are ſaid by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eaſtern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Schiras, and flouriſhed in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces both in proſe and verſe. Shemſeddin was one of the moſt eminent lyric poets that Aſia has produced; and Nakhſheb wrote in Perſian a book called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a moſt animated and elegant poet, who flouriſhed in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whoſe beautiful compoſitions, on a great variety of ſubjects, are preſerved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri compoſed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery ſtyle, a moral work, in fifty diſſertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interſperſed with a number of agreeable adventures, and ſeveral fine pieces of poetry.

At preſent learning is at a very low ebb among the Perſians. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is now reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology; ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcription. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diſeaſes that are fatal in other places; ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed, and they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The monuments of antiquity in Perſia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taſte. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Perſepolis,

are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty which are diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls; but upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Gombroon work ſuch cures, that they are eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous naphtha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſurpriſing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houſes of men of quality in Perſia, are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings; and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſeras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1741, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the ſouth of Aſtrachan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The wines of Schiras are reckoned the beſt of any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Pars, the ancient Perſia, and hath a college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning. It contains an uncommon number of moſques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The

Engliſh,

Engliſh, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahometan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone; before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, inſtead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. No woman is allowed to enter the moſque; nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying for the ſouls of the deceaſed.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well conſtructed for the purpoſe of bathing. Sometimes they are ſquare, but oftener circular, built of white well-poliſhed ſtone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholeſome; though to thoſe not accuſtomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and ſtretches his limbs as if he was diſlocating every bone in the body; all which exerciſes are, in thoſe inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies ſucceed, and when coming out of the bath diſplay their fineſt cloaths.

I might here attempt to deſcribe the eaſtern ſeraglios or harams, the women's apartments; but from the moſt credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taſte and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are ſeldom or never entered by ſtrangers; and there is no country where women are ſo ſtrictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Perſia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Perſians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in theſe join fancy, taſte, and elegance to richneſs, neatneſs, and ſhew; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries and horſe furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are clumſy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glaſſes. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpreſſible diſadvantages from the form of their government, which renders

are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty which are diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls; but upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Gombroon work ſuch cures, that they are eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous naphtha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſurpriſing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houſes of men of quality in Perſia, are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings; and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſeras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1741, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the ſouth of Aſtrachan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The wines of Schiras are reckoned the beſt of any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Pars, the ancient Perſia, and hath a college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning. It contains an uncommon number of moſques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The

Engliſh,

Engliſh, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahometan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone; before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, inſtead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. No woman is allowed to enter the moſque; nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying for the ſouls of the deceaſed.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well conſtructed for the purpoſe of bathing. Sometimes they are ſquare, but oftener circular, built of white well-poliſhed ſtone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholeſome; though to thoſe not accuſtomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and ſtretches his limbs as if he was diſlocating every bone in the body; all which exerciſes are, in thoſe inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies ſucceed, and when coming out of the bath diſplay their fineſt cloaths.

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them ſlaves to their kings, who often engroſs either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Perſians, who have little or no ſhipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the Engliſh and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the moſt gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great ſcheme of the Engliſh, in trading with the Perſians through Ruſſia, promiſed great advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto anſwered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterſburgh is not fond of ſuffering the Engliſh to eſtabliſh themſelves upon the Caſpian ſea, the navigation of which is now poſſeſſed by the Ruſſians; but nothing can be ſaid with certainty on that head, till the government of Perſia is in a more ſettled condition than it is at preſent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both theſe are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic, and often capricious monarch. The Perſians, however, had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their thrones females, but not their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects the king's will was a law for the people. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahometan kings of Perſia, are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the laſt two centuries. The reaſon given to the Chriſtian ambaſſadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their moſt celebrated princes, was, that the Perſians were ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Perſians have no degrees of nobility ſo that the reſpect due to every man, on account of his high ſtation, expires with himſelf. The king has been known to prefer a younger ſon to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. No rank or condition of Perſians is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The governors of provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's houſhold, and great officers of ſtate. After laying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Perſian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is ſubject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat. The Perſians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ſhips of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but ſince his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Perſian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the riſing ſun. His title is Shah, or the "*Diſpoſer of Kingdoms.*"

*Kingdoms.*" Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he aſſumes likewiſe, are Tartar titles. To acts of ſtate the Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner, "This act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys."

HISTORY.] All ancient hiſtorians mention the Perſian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here ſufficient to ſay, that the Perſian empire ſucceeded the Aſſyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Chriſt, and reſtored the Iſraelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Chriſt. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their poſterity were conquered by the Romans. Theſe laſt, however, never fully ſubdued Perſia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arſaces, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The ſucceſſors of thoſe princes ſurvived the Roman empire itſelf, but were ſubdued by the famous Tamerlane, whoſe poſterity were ſupplanted by a doctor of law, the anceſtor of the Sefi family, and who pretended to be deſcended from Mahomet himſelf. His ſucceſſors, though ſome of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a diſgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into ſuch diſrepute with their ſubjects, barbarous as they were, that Haſſein, a prince of the Sefi race, who ſucceeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, ſon and ſucceſſor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himſelf was by Eſref, one of his general officers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the repreſentative of the Sefi family, had eſcaped from the rebels, and aſſembling an army, took into his ſervice Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Eſref, and reannexed to the Perſian monarchy all the places diſmembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At laſt the ſecret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after aſſuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, he rebelled againſt his ſovereign, made him a priſoner, and, it is ſuppoſed, put him to death.

This uſurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indoſtan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been mentioned in the deſcription of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconſiderable part of his booty from India, loſing great part of it upon his return by the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Uſbec Tartary; but was not ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Daghiſtan Tartars, whoſe country he found to be inacceſſible. He beat the Turks in ſeveral engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to ſtrike terror into all his ſubjects by the moſt cruel executions. His conduct became ſo intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was aſſaſſinated in his own tent, partly in ſelf-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, ſtarted up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763.

# ARABIA.

## Situation and Extent.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1300, Breadth 1200 | between | 35 and 60 East long. / 12 and 30 North lat. | 700,000 |

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the North; by the gulfs of Perfia or Baffora, and Ormus, which feparate it from Perfia, on the Eaft; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the Weft.

| Divifions. | Subdivifions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Arabia Petræa, N. W. | —— —— | Suez, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50. |
| 2. Arabia Deferta, in the middle. | Haggiaz or Mecca — | Mecca, E. lon. 43-30. lat. 21. 20. |
| | | Siden |
| | | Medina |
| | Tehama — — | Dhafar |
| 3. Arabia Felix, S. E. | Mocha — — | Mocha, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13. 45. |
| | | Sibit |
| | Hadramut — — | Hadramut |
| | Caffeen — — | Caffeen |
| | Segur — — | Segur |
| | Oman or Muſcat | Muſcat |
| | Jamama — — | Jamama |
| | Bahara — — | Elcalf. |

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preferved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally faid, fignifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is faid to fignify both a thief and an inhabitant of the defert. Thefe names juftly belong to the Arabians, for they feldom let any merchandife pafs through the country without extorting fomething from the owners, if they do not rob them.

Mountains.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, eaft of the Red Sea, and thofe called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the moft noted.

Rivers, seas, gulfs, and capes.] There are few fountains, fprings, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaft limits of it. It is almoft furrounded with feas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Perfia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are thofe of Rofalgate and Muſledon.

Climate, air, soil, and produce.] As a conſiderable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix, the air is exceſſively dry and hot, and the country is ſubject to hot poiſonous winds, like thofe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil, in ſome parts,

parts, is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or loſt. In theſe deſerts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, ſays Dr. Shaw, are no paſtures clothed with flocks, nor vallies ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs, no other ways diverſified than by plains covered with ſand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day time. But the ſouthern parts of Arabia, deſervedly called the Happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea coaſt, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which laſt are found ſcarcely any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The moſt uſeful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts of this country, for they are ſo formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their ſtomach into their throat, by which means they can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and in due time riſe with their load. The dromedary is a ſmall camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will ſmell it at a diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of thoſe in England. They are only fit for the ſaddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their ſwiftneſs and high mettle. The fineſt breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is ſituated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. } The Arabians, like moſt of the nations of Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and are ſaid to be, in general, a martial brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire-arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done ſince they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are ſuch thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations, through motives of devotion or curioſity, are ſtruck with terror on their approaches towards the deſerts. Theſe robbers, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, and aſſault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that ſo late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 perſons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by

by a Turkiſh army. On the ſea-coaſt they are mere pirates, and make prize of every veſſel they can maſter, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of furs or ſheep-ſkins over it; they alſo wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no ſtockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almoſt naked; but, as in the eaſtern countries, the women are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be diſcerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of fleſh, except that of hogs; and prefer the fleſh of camels, as we prefer veniſon, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the fleſh, as the Jews do, and like them refuſe ſuch fiſh as have no ſcales. Coffee and tea, water, and ſherbet made of oranges, water, and ſugar, is their uſual drink; they have no ſtrong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following hiſtory of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are ſtill Pagans, but the people in general profeſs Mahometaniſm.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and ſkill in all the liberal arts, there is ſcarcely a country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The vulgar language uſed in the three Arabias is the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the Eaſt accounted the richeſt, moſt energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin is amongſt Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be a maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words. The books which treat of it ſay, they have no fewer than a thouſand terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noſter in the Arabic is as follows:

*Abuna elladbi fi-ſſamwat; jetkaddas eſmâc; tati malacutac: taouri maſchiatic, cama fi-ſſama; kedbalec ala lardh aating chobzena keſatna iaum be aum; swagfor lena donubena swachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca daina; walâ tadalbchalna ſibajavih; laken mejjina me nneſcherir.* Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS.] What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and about three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greeks and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhew the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in Scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muſcat, Suez, and Juddah, where moſt of the trade of this country is carried on.

Mocha

Mocha is well built, the houſes very lofty, and are with the walls and forts covered with a chinam or ſtucco, that gives a dazzling whiteneſs to them. The harbour is ſemicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are ſeveral handſome moſques in the city. Suez, the Arſinoe of the ancients, is ſurrounded by the Deſert, and but a ſhabby ill-built place. The ſhips are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greateſt trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former ſending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of theſe, with the profits of the port, are ſhared by the Grand Signior, and the Xeriff of Mecca, to whom this place jointly belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a moſque ſo glorious, that it is generally counted the moſt magnificent of any temple in the Turkiſh dominions: its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delighful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place, is almoſt incredible, every muſſulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life time, or ſend a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a ſtately moſque, ſupported by 400 pillars, and furniſhed with 300 ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Moſt Holy*," by the Turks, becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the grand Signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a ſort of ſanctity from it, and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, ſo curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones, that it is eſteemed a maſter-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are ſtyled xerifs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as the caliſs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. Theſe monarchs appear to be abſolute, both in ſpirituals and temporals: the ſucceſſion is hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but it is certain, that they receive large gratuities from the grand Signior for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no ſtanding regular militia, but the kings command both the perſons and the purſes of their ſubjects, as the neceſſity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of that country in ſome meaſure differs from that of all others: for as the ſlavery and ſubjection of other nations make a great part of their hiſtory, that of the Arabs is entirely compoſed of their conqueſts or independence. The Arabs are deſcended from Iſhmael, of whoſe

whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible, "have their hands againſt every man, and every man's hands againſt theirs." They are at preſent, and have remained from the remoteſt ages, during the various conqueſts of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the north, and the ſea-coaſt of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes of the ſouthern and inland parts acknowledge themſelves for ſubjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to haraſs and annoy all ſtrangers who come into their country. The conqueſts of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their hiſtory, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. Theſe, as well as their religion, began with one man, whoſe character forms a very ſingular phænomenon in the hiſtory of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that diviſion of Arabia, which, for the luxuriancy of its ſoil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been eſteemed the loveliеſt and ſweeteſt region of the world, and is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the ſixth century, in the reign of Juſtinian XI. emperor of Conſtantinople. Though deſcended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endued with a ſubtile genius, like thoſe of the ſame country, and poſſeſſed a degree of enterprize and ambition peculiar to himſelf, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occaſion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the ſervice of a rich merchant, upon whoſe death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be poſſeſſed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the Eaſt, he had obſerved the vaſt variety of ſects in religion, whoſe hatred againſt each other was ſtrong and inveterate, while at the ſame time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of theſe particulars, by means of which, and by addreſſing himſelf to the love of power, riches, and pleaſure, paſſions univerſal among them, he expected to raiſe a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been eſtabliſhed. In this deſign he was aſſiſted by Sergius, a monk, whoſe libertine diſpoſition had made him forſake his cloiſter, and profeſſion, and engage in the ſervice of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domeſtic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for ſupplying the defects which his maſter, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, muſt have obſtructed the execution of his deſign. It was neceſſary, however, that the religion they propoſed to eſtabliſh ſhould have a divine ſanction; and for this purpoſe Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often ſubject to fits of the epilepſy, a diſeaſe which thoſe whom it afflicts are deſirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that theſe fits were trances, into which he was miraculouſly thrown by God Almighty, during which he was inſtructed in his will, which he was commanded to publiſh to the world. By this ſtrange ſtory, and by leading a retired, abſtemious, and auſtere life, he eaſily acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himſelf ſufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthuſiaſm of his followers, he boldly declared himſelf a prophet, ſent by God into the world, not only to teach his

his will, but to compel mankind to obey it. As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his ſyſtem ſo narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude, and enthuſiaſtic, was enlarged by travelling into diſtant lands, whoſe manners and religion he had made a peculiar ſtudy. He propoſed that the ſyſtem he eſtabliſhed ſhould extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whoſe doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eaſtern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jeſus Chriſt was coequal with God the father, as is declared in the Athanaſian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into theſe corners of the world from the perſecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatned the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of theſe countries were Pagans. Theſe, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whoſe religious principles is weak, had given themſelves over to pleaſure and ſenſuality, or to the acquiſition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of ſenſe, which together with the doctrine of predeſtination, compoſed the ſole principles of their religion and philoſophy. Mahomet's ſyſtem was exactly ſuited to theſe three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had ſent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moſes and Jeſus Chriſt were the moſt eminent; but the endeavours of theſe had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now ſent his laſt and greateſt prophet, with a commiſſion more ample than what Moſes or Chriſt had been entruſted with. He had commanded him not only to publiſh his laws, but to ſubdue theſe who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to eſtabliſh a kingdom upon earth which ſhould propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had deſigned utter ruin and deſtruction to thoſe who ſhould refuſe to ſubmit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love; that the pleaſures of ſuch as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly tranſcend thoſe of the reſt. Theſe, together with the prohibition of drinking ſtrong liquors, (a reſtraint not very ſevere in warm climates,) and the doctrine of predeſtination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no ſooner publiſhed than a vaſt number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the prieſt we formerly mentioned, and compoſe a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we ſay the Bible, which means the Book. The perſon of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; ſo that the greater part of them were ſufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a deſign to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to cuſtom, greateſt at a diſtance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Chriſt, the forty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his miniſtry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom

whom his inſinuation and addreſs daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at leaſt to an acquieſcence in his doctrines. The ſpeedy propagation of his ſyſtem among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the Eaſt, who were previouſly diſpoſed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forſook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion ſpread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the moſt powerful monarch in his time. He died in 629, leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine among their ſubjects. Theſe were the caliphs of Perſia and of Egypt, under the laſt of which Arabia was included. The former of theſe turned their arms to the Eaſt, and made conqueſts of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors, (which they obtained becauſe they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced moſt of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the ſucceſſors of that impoſtor ſpread their religion and conqueſts over the greateſt part of Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and they ſtill give law to a very conſiderable part of mankind.

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## The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a moſt deſpotic prince, who is ſometimes called emperor, and ſometimes king. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of eaſt longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141ſt degree of eaſt longitude, and the 36th of north latitude. The ſoil and productions of the country are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. The iſlands themſelves are very inacceſſible, through their high rocks and tempeſtuous ſeas; they are ſubject to earthquakes, and have ſome volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumſtance of the Dutch expelling the Portugueſe from this gainful trade. The Japaneſe themſelves are the groſſeſt of all idolaters, and ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the Japaneſe in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. Notwithſtanding all this compliance, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch, and Nagaſacci, in the iſland of Dezima, is the only place were they are ſuffered to trade. The complexions of the Japaneſe are in general yellowiſh, although ſome few, chiefly women, are almoſt white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like thoſe of the Chineſe and Tartars; and their noſes are ſhort and thick. Their hair is univerſally black; and ſuch a ſameneſs of faſhion reigns throughout the whole empire, that the head-dreſs is the ſame from the emperor to the peaſant. The faſhion of their cloaths has alſo remained the ſame from very high antiquity. They conſiſt of one or more looſe

gowns,

gowns, tied about the middle with a ſaſh. People of rank have them made of ſilk, but the lower claſs of cotton ſtuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or ſilver flowers woven into the ſtuff. Their houſes are built with upright poſts, croſſed and wattled with bamboo, plaiſtered both without and within, and white-waſhed. They generally have two ſtories; but the uppermoſt is low, and ſeldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, ſtools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their cuſtom is to ſit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always ſoft and clean. Their victuals are ſerved up to them on a low board, raiſed but a few inches from the floor, and one diſh only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houſes as ornamental furniture: they are made of a compound metal, and uſed only at their toilets. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houſes from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor ſtoves: inſtead of theſe they uſe large copper pots ſtanding upon legs. Theſe are lined on the inſide with loam, on which aſhes are laid to ſome depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which ſeems to be prepared in ſome manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The firſt compliment offered to a ſtranger, in their houſes, is a diſh of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are uſed by both ſexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inſeparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly: every houſe, whether public or private, has a bath, of which conſtant and daily uſe is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and reſpect to ſuperiors, are the characteriſtics of this nation. Their ſalutations and converſations between equals abound alſo with civility and politeneſs; to this children are early accuſtomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very ſevere; but puniſhments are ſeldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes againſt ſociety are committed. Commerce and manufactures flouriſh here, though, as theſe people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we ſee in Europe. Agriculture is ſo well underſtood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chineſe, and in both caſes with companies of privileged merchants.—Beſides the ſugars, ſpices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch ſend to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer ſkins and more than 100,000 hides, the greateſt part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandiſe they export from theſe iſlands, both for Bengal and Europe, conſiſt in 9000 cheſts of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they ſend an annual preſent to the emperor, conſiſting of cloth, chintz, ſuccotas, cottons, ſtuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is ſaid to be Guam, eaſt longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anſon landed

landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreſhment for himſelf and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewiſe an oriental iſland. It is ſituated to the eaſt of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the ſouth coaſt, and ending at the north. This is a very fine iſland, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. That part of the iſland which lies to the weſt of the mountains, belongs to the Chineſe, who conſider the inhabitants of the eaſtern parts as ſavages, though they are ſaid to be a very inoffenſive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the ſame with the Chineſe, already deſcribed. The Chineſe have likewiſe made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other iſlands in theſe ſeas, of which we ſcarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between ſixty and ſeventy leagues long, and between fifty and ſixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a ſhy, cowardly people, and live in the moſt unwholeſome part of the iſland, the coaſt and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being poſſeſſed by the Chineſe.

The PHILIPPINES, of which there are 1100 in number, lying in the Chineſe ſea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintados, or painted people, and Meſtes, a mixture of all theſe. The property of the iſlands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been diſcovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their ſituation is ſuch, between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the iſlands and places of the Eaſt Indies. Two ſhips from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent profit. The country is fruitful in all the neceſſaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Veniſon of all kinds, baffaloes, hogs, ſheep, goats, and a particular large ſpecies of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The neſt of the bird ſaligan affords that diſſolving jelly, which is ſo voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive ſurpriſingly in theſe iſlands. If a ſprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; ſo that the verdure and luxuriancy of the ſoil are almoſt incredible. The tree amet ſupplies the natives with water; and there is alſo a kind of cane, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is moſt wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the diſtance of three leagues, and defended by the caſtle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the Engliſh under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, who took it by ſtorm, and humanely ſuffered the archbiſhop, who was the Spaniſh viceroy, at the ſame time, to ranſom the place for about a million ſterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerouſly diſowned by him and the court of Spain, ſo that great part of the ranſom is ſtill unpaid. The Spaniſh government is ſettled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other iſlands, particularly Mindanao, the largeſt next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call ſultans. The ſultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon

Upon the whole, though theſe iſlands are enriched with all the profuſion of nature, yet they are ſubject to moſt dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the ſoil is peſtered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whoſe poiſons kill almoſt inſtantaneouſly. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. Theſe are not out of ſight of each other, and lie all within the compaſs of twenty-five leagues to the ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between one degree ſouth, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Theſe iſlands produce neither corn nor rice, ſo that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of ſagoe. Their chief produce conſiſts of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vaſt quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with ſo much jealouſy, that they deſtroy the plants leſt the natives ſhould ſell the ſupernumerary ſpices to other nations. Theſe iſlands, after being ſubject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, ſubordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largeſt of theſe iſlands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are ſituated between 127 and 128 degrees eaſt longitude, and between four and five ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Poleron, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on theſe iſlands, are thoſe of Revenge and Naſſau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on theſe iſlands only, and they are entirely ſubject to the Dutch. In ſeveral iſlands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, becauſe, as naturaliſts tell us, birds, eſpecially doves and pigeons, ſwallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the ſame ſtate; which is one of the reaſons why the Dutch declare war againſt both birds in their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harveſt is in June and Auguſt.

AMBOYNA. This iſland, taken in a large ſenſe, is one, and the moſt conſiderable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is ſituated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portugueſe were driven off this iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but will be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period to all poſterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The iſland of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is ſituated under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo and the Spice Iſlands, at the diſtance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature has furniſhed them. The Dutch have a fortification on this iſland; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom reſides in the town of Macaſſar. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the Oriental

iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night time, for their ſecurity againſt venomous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chineſe. Their port of Jampoden, is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewiſe fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other ſpice iſlands lying under the equator, and will ſink any ſhips that attempt to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is ſaid to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and is therefore thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of the country is marſhy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang, one of which was diſſected by Dr. Tyſon at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to reſemble a man the moſt. The original inhabitants are ſaid to live in the mountains, and make uſe of poiſoned darts; but the ſea-coaſt is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this iſland is Benjar-Maſſeen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and Java on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This iſland produces ſo much gold, that it is thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the ſcriptures; but Mr. Marſden in his late hiſtory of the Iſland, thinks it was unknown to the ancients.—Its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The Engliſh Eaſt India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen and Fort-Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who poſſeſs the ſea-coaſts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the adjacent iſlands.

Rain is very frequent here; ſometimes very heavy, and almoſt always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are ſeveral volcanos on the iſland. The people who inhabit the coaſt are Malays, who came hither from the peninſula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connexion with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from thoſe of the Malays; the latter uſing the Arabic character. The people between the diſtricts of the Engliſh company, and

* There is a mountain in the iſland which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whoſe ſummit above the level of the ſea is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriff by 527 feet.

thoſe

thoſe of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other ſide the iſland, write on long narrow ſlips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the cuſtom of other eaſtern nations. Theſe inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in ſmall villages, called Dooſans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, ſome written ones, by which they puniſh offenders, and terminate diſputes. They have almoſt all of them, particularly the women, large ſwellings in the throat, ſome nearly as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an oſtrich's egg, like the goitres of the Alps. That part of this iſland which is called the Caſſia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and cuſtoms. They have no king, but live in villages, independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very ſtrongly with double fences of camphor plank pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between theſe fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewiſe pointed, which are concealed by the graſs, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take priſoners, they put to death and eat, and their ſkulls they hang up as trophies, in the houſes where the unmarried men and boys eat and ſleep.—They allow of polygamy: a man may purchaſe as many wives as he pleaſes; but their number ſeldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the ſame houſe with the huſband, and the houſes have no partition; but each wife has her ſeparate fire-place. It is from this country that moſt of the caſſia ſent to Europe is produced. The caſſia tree grows to fifty or ſixty feet, with a ſtem of about two feet diameter, and a beautiful and regular ſpreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the iſland of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely ſurround it. It is inhabited by naked ſavages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and ſpeak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring iſlands.

The greateſt part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours in the world. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and ſurrounded by regular fortifications; but its ſuburbs are ſaid to be ten times more populous than itſelf. The government here is a mixture of Eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of any European potentate, except upon ſome ſolemn occaſions. The city is as beautiful as it is ſtrong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world; the Chineſe reſiding in this iſland being computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked and deteſtable to be de-

fended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of 3000 men conſtantly reſides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the iſland and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR iſlands. Theſe iſlands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furniſh proviſions, conſiſting of tropical fruits and other neceſſaries, for the ſhips that touch there. They are otherwiſe too inconſiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmleſs, inoffenſive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This iſland, though not the largeſt, is thought to be by nature the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world. It is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin; the ſouthern extremity of the Hither Peninſula of India, being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by a narrow ſtrait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with ſome ſhew of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſalt-petre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper; beſides cinnamon, gold, and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fiſh abound here. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered; and beſides ſome curious animals peculiar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, eſpecially if ſpotted: but ſeveral noxious animals, ſuch as ſerpents and ants, are likewiſe found here. The chief commodity of the iſland, however, is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Though its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief ſettlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, ſo that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who have in a manner ſhut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which ſtands on a mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaſſes, who, though idolaters, value themſelves upon maintaining their ancient laws and cuſtoms. They are in general a ſober inoffenſive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the beſt; and the body of the tree, which when ſtripped is white, ſerves for building and other uſes. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious iſland, to defend them againſt the Portugueſe, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever ſince to themſelves. Indeed in January 1782, Trinconomale the chief ſea-port of the iſland was taken by the Engliſh, but ſoon afterwards retaken by the French, and reſtored to the Dutch by the laſt treaty of peace.

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands or little rocks juſt above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coaſts of

Guinea

Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "Of this tree (ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, are all from this uſeful tree."

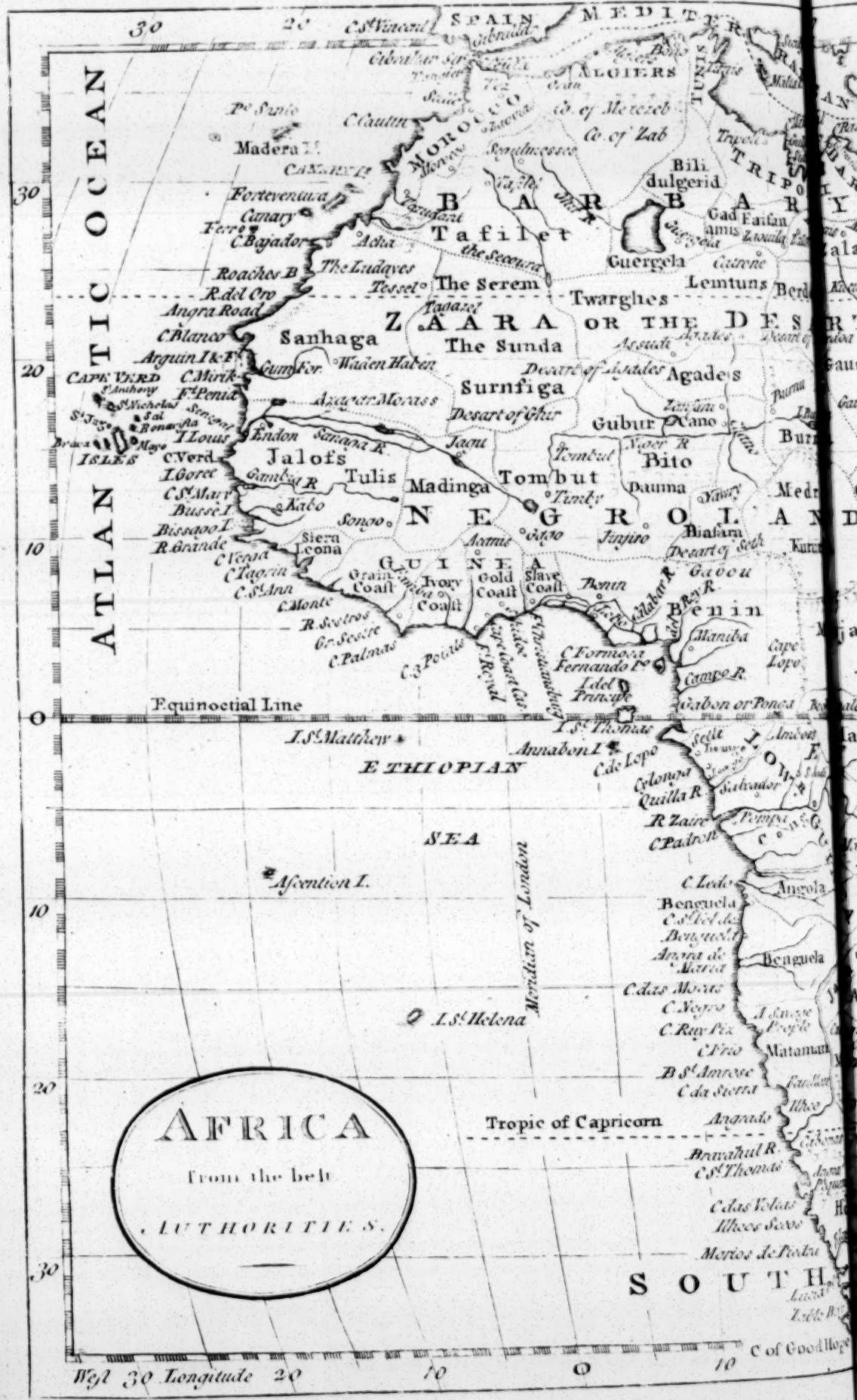
We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Indian words, are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in theſe matters, to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian, and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

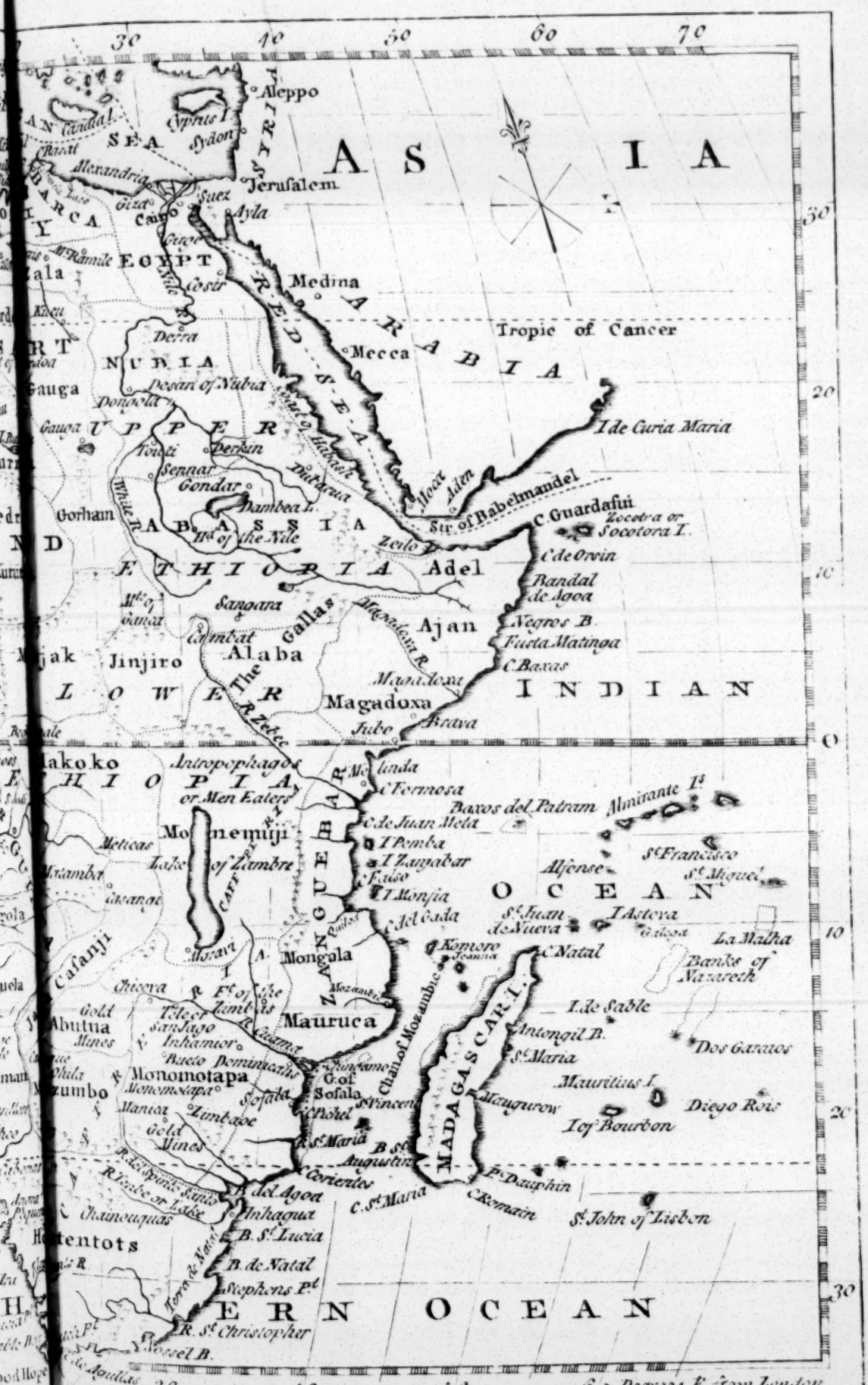
The ſea which ſeparates the ſouthern point of the peninſula of Kamtſchatka from Japan, contains a number of iſlands in a poſition from north-north-eaſt to ſouth-ſouth-weſt, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in ſeveral of them are volcanoes and hot ſprings. The principal of theſe iſlands are inhabited; but ſome of the little ones are entirely deſert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other in reſpect both to their ſituation and natural conſtitution. The foreſts in the more northern ones are compoſed of laryx and pines; thoſe to the ſouthern produce cane-, bamboos, vines, &c. In ſome of them are bears and foxes. The ſea-otter appears on the coaſts of all theſe iſlands, as well as whales, ſea-horſes, ſeals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands have a great likeneſs to the Japaneſe, in their manners, language, and perſonal appearance; others very much reſemble the Kamtſchadales. The northern iſlands acknowledge the ſovereignty of the empire of Ruſſia; but thoſe to the ſouth pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians diſcover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hoſpitable; but adverſity renders them timid, and prompts them to ſuicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an eſpecial affection for thoſe of their reſpective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they ſpeak and pronounce it ſlowly. The men are employed in hunting, fiſhing for ſea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their foreſts produce, or that the ſea caſts upon their ſhores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make cloaths. In the northern iſles they ſew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The ſouthern iſlanders are more refined and poliſhed than the northern, and carry on a ſort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japaneſe utenſils of metal and varniſhed wood, ſkillets, ſabres, different ſtuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all ſorts of trinkets, and ſmall wares.

# AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand diviſion of the globe, is generally repreſented as bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninſula of a prodigious extent, joined to Aſia only by a neck of land, about ſixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, uſually called the Iſthmus of Suez, and its utmoſt length from north to ſouth, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 ſouth latitude, is 4300 miles; and the broadeſt part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees, to Cape Guardafui, near the ſtraits of Babel Mandel, in 51-20 eaſt longitude, is 3500 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian ocean, which divides it from Aſia; on the ſouth by the ſouthern ocean; and on the weſt by the great Atlantic ocean, which ſeparates it from America. As the equator divides this extenſive country almoſt in the middle, and the far greateſt part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there increaſed by the rays of the ſun from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſts, however, and banks of rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile; and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being ſo populous as Europe or Aſia. From what has been ſaid, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, ſnow ſeldom falls in the plains: and it is generally never found but on the tops of the higheſt mountains. The natives, in theſe ſcorching regions, would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt, and flow in liquid ſtreams, as that water by freezing ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by the cold, and ceaſing to flow, become like the ſolid rock.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in Africa, are, the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or weſtern ocean at Senegal, after a courſe of 2800 miles. It increaſes and decreaſes as the Nile, fertiliſes the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in Abyſſinia. The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the weſtern ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of aſtronomy, who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from its ſummit; on which account the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders. The Mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monomotapa, and are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas. Thoſe of Sierra Leona, or the mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were called by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, is ſaid to be three miles high in the form of


AFRICA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEDITERR
SPAIN
C.St Vincent
Gibraltar
ALGIERS
Algiers
Tripoli
MOROCCO
Fez
Morocco
Co. of Merzeb
Co. of Zab
Tripoli
Pe. Sanio
C. Gautin
Madera I.
CANARY I.
Mogadore
Santa Cruz
Tafilet
Bili dulgerid
BARBARY
Forteventura I.
Canary
Ferro
C. Bojador
Acka
Tagazza
Guergela
Gad Fasan
Lemtuns
Roaches B.
The Ludayes
Tessel
The Serem
Twarghes
R. del Oro
Angra Road
C. Blanco
Sanhaga
The Sunda
ZAARA OR THE DESERT
Arguin I. & F.
Cumfor
Waden Haben
Desart of Agades
Agades
CAPE VERD ISLES
C. Mirik
F. Penia
Azaguer Morass
Surnfiga
Gubur
Cano
Desart of Ghir
Zanfara
St Jago
Mayo
I. Louis
Lndon
Senaga R.
Jaqui
Tombut
Niger R.
Bito
C. Verd
Jalofs
Gambia R.
Tulis
Madinga
Tombut
Dauma
Timbo
I. Goree
C. St Mary
Busse I.
Kabo
Bissago I.
R. Grande
Songo
NEGROLAND
Siera Leona
Acanie
Gago
Jinjiro
Bialam
Desart of Segelo
C. Verga
C. Tagrin
C. St Ann
GUINEA
Grain Coast
Ivory Coast
Gold Coast
Slave Coast
Benin
Gabou
C. Monte
R. Sestros
Gr. Sestre
C. Palmas
C. Three Points
St Andrew
St Jago
St Crucifix
St Paul
St Antonio
St Thomas
Gilabat R.
Bight of Benin
Bonny R.
Maniba
C. Formosa
Fernando Po
Camp R.
Cape Lopo
Equinoctial Line
Gabon or Ponos
I. St Matthew
I. St Thomas
Annabon I.
C. de Lopo
ETHIOPIAN SEA
Ascention I.
Meridian of London
I. St Helena
C. Ledo
Angola
Benguela
C. das Mortas
C. Negro
C. Rux Pix
C. Frio
B. St Antonio
C. da Sierra
Tropic of Capricorn
Angada
Brawhul R.
C. St Thomas
C. das Volas
Illhos Seros
Morros de Pedra
SOUTH
C. of Good Hope
West 30 Longitude 20 10 0 10


30
40
50
60
70
Aleppo
Cyprus I.
Sydon
SEA
ASIA
Jerusalem
Suez
Cairo
Ayla
EGYPT
Medina
RED SEA
ARABIA
Tropic of Cancer
Mecca
NUBIA
I de Curia Maria
Dessan of Nubia
Gauga
Gaura
UPPER
Sennar
Gondar
Dambea L.
Gorham
ABASSIA
Str. of Babelmandel
C. Guardafui
Socotra or Socotora I.
C. de Orvin
ETHIOPIA
Adel
Bandal de Agoa
Sanoara
Ajan
Negros B.
Fusta Matinqa
Jinjiro
Alaba
C. Baxas
LOWER
Magadoxa
INDIAN
Brava
Zeila
Antropophagos
or Men Eaters
Melinda
C. Formosa
Bayos del Patram
Almirante Is
C. de Juan Meta
Mocnemiji
I. Pemba
I. Zanzabar
St. Francisco
Alfonse
St. Miguel
I. Monfia
OCEAN
Lake of Zambre
I. Astova
Jel Cada
St. Juan de Nueva
La Malha
Komoro
C. Natal
Banks of Nazareth
Mongola
Mauruca
I. de Sable
Antongil B.
Abutua
Mines
Monomotapa
Sofala
Dos Garatos
St. Maria
Mauritius I.
Diego Rois
Mouguruw
Isl. Bourbon
B. St. Augustin
Corientes
C. St. Maria
Romain
St. John of Lisbon
Hottentots
B. St. Lucia
B. de Natal
Stephens Pt.
R. St. Christopher
Mossel B.
Degrees E. from London

of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt. The moſt noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, ſo called, becauſe the land is always covered with green trees and moſſy ground. It is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueſe, when they firſt went round it in 1498, and diſcovered the paſſage to Aſia. It is the ſouth extremity of Africa, the country of the Hottentots; and at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one ſtrait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian ocean.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, ſtanding as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueſe, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the French, who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but that of the moſt authentic hiſtorians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of ſea-coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it ſhould have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and that it ſhould be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of theſe rivers are the moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, calm, and ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandiſe. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itſelf, ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unſolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civilized Europeans who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueſe.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and by degrees all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. After this, the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three ſorts: namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and theſe are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is poſſeſſed of.

There are ſcarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern diviſions of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and conſequently we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown and undiſcovered parts of the world; but according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table:

| | Nations. | Length. | Bread. | Square Miles. | Chief Cities. | Diſt. and bear. fr London. | Diff. of time from London. | Religions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barbary. | Morocco, Tafilet, &c. | 500 | 480 | 219,400 | Fez | 1080 S. | 0 24 aft. | Mahom. |
| | Algiers | 480 | 100 | 143,600 | Algiers | 920 S. | 0 13 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Tunis | 220 | 170 | 54,400 | Tunis | 990 S.E | 0 39 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Tripoli | 700 | 240 | 75,600 | Tripoli | 1260 S.E. | 0 56 bef. | Mahom |
| | Barca | 400 | 200 | 66,400 | Tolemeta | 1440 S.E | 1 26 bef. | Mahom. |
| Up. Ethiopia. | Egypt | 600 | 250 | 140,700 | Grand Cairo | 1020 S.E. | 2 21 bef | Mahom. |
| | Biledulgerid | 2500 | 350 | 485,000 | Dara | 1565 S. | 0 32 aft. | Pagans |
| | Zaara | 3400 | 660 | 739,200 | Tegeſſa | 1840 S. | 0 44 aft. | Pagans |
| | Negroland | 2200 | 840 | 1,026,000 | Madinga | 2500 S. | 0 28 aft. | Pagans |
| | Guinea | 1800 | 360 | 510,000 | Benin | 2700 S | 0 20 bef. | Pagans |
| | Nubia | 940 | 600 | 264,000 | Nubia | 2418 S.E | 2 12 bef. | Ma. & Pa. |
| | Abyſſinia | 900 | 800 | 378,000 | Gondar | 2880 S.E. | 2 20 bef. | Chriſtian. |
| | Abex | 540 | 130 | 160,000 | Doncala. | 3180 S.E | 2 36 bef | Ch & Pa. |
| | The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 ſquare miles. | | | | | | | |
| Lower Guinea. | Loango | 410 | 300 | 49,400 | Loango | 3300 S. | 0 44 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Congo | 540 | 420 | 172,800 | St. Salvador | 3480 S | 1 0 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Angola | 360 | 250 | 38,400 | Loando | 3750 S. | 0 58 bef. | Ch & Pa |
| | Benguela | 420 | 180 | 64,000 | Benguela | 3900 S. | 0 58 bef. | Pagans |
| | Mataman | 450 | 240 | 144,000 | No Towns | * * * | * * | Pagans |
| | Ajan | 900 | 300 | 234,000 | Brava | 3702 S.E. | 2 40 bef | Pagans |
| | Zanguebar | 1400 | 350 | 275,000 | Melinda or Mozambiq. | 4440 S.E. | 2 38 bef. | Pagans |
| | Monomotapa | 960 | 660 | 222,500 | Monomotap. | 4500 S. | 1 18 bef. | Pagans |
| | Monemugi | 900 | 660 | 310,000 | Chicova | 4260 S. | 1 44 bef. | Pagans |
| | Sofol | 480 | 300 | 97,500 | Sofola | 4600 S.E. | 2 18 bef. | Pagans |
| | Terra de Nat. | 600 | 350 | 184,900 | No Towns | * * * | * * * | Pagans |
| | Caffaria or Hottentot | 708 | 660 | 200,340 | Cape of G. Hope. | 5200 S. | 1 4 bef. | Moſt ſtupid Pag. |

The

The principal iſlands of Africa lie in the Indian ſeas and Atlantic Ocean: of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and ſerve to refreſh their ſhipping to and from India:

| Iſlands. | Sq. M. | Towns | Trade with or belong to |
|---|---|---|---|
| Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea — — | | Babel Mandel — | All Nations |
| Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean — | 3,600 | Calauſia — — | Ditto |
| The Comora Iſles, ditto — | 1,000 | Joanna — — | Ditto |
| Madagaſcar, ditto —— — | 168,000 | St. Auſtin —— | Ditto |
| Mauritius, ditto — — | 1,840 | Mauritius — — | French |
| Bourbon, ditto — — | 2,100 | Bourbon —— — | Ditto |
| St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean | | St. Helena — — | Engliſh |
| Aſcenſion, ditto — — | | | Uninhabited |
| St. Matthew, ditto — — | | | Ditto |
| St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-iſland, Fernandopo } ditto | | St. Thomas, Anaboa | Portugueſe |
| Cape Verd Iſlands, ditto | 2,000 | St. Domingo | Ditto |
| Goree, ditto — — | | Fort St. Michael | French |
| Canaries, ditto — — | | Palma, St. Chriſtopher's | Spaniſh |
| Madeiras, ditto — — | 1,500 | Santa Cruz, Funchal | Portugueſe |
| The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles lie nearly at an equal diſtance from Europe, Africa, and America } ditto | 2,000 | Angra, St. Michael | Ditto |

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now conſider it under the three grand diviſions: firſt, Egypt; ſecondly, the ſtates of Barbary, ſtretching along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the eaſt, to the Atlantic Ocean, weſt; and laſtly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; the laſt of theſe diviſions, indeed, is vaſtly greater than the other two; but the nations, which it contains, are ſo little known, and ſo barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, ſo ſimilar in moſt reſpects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

# EGYPT.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 600 | between | 20 and 32 North latitude. | 140,700 |
| Breadth | 250 | | 28 and 36 Eaſt longitude. | |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, Eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the deſert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, Weſt.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Northern division contains | Lower Egypt | Grand Cairo, E. lon. 32 N. lat. 30. |
| | | Bulac |
| | | Alexandria |
| | | Rosetto |
| | | Damietta |
| Southern division contains | Upper Egypt | Sayd or Thebes |
| | | Cosliar. |

Air.] In April and May the air is hot, and often infectious; and the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

Soil and produce.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country,) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants,) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of

Egypt.

Egypt. The camelion, a little animal ſomething reſembling a lizard, that changes colour as you ſtand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not ſeem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four ſhort legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable ſcales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the ſedge, and other cover, on the ſides of rivers; and, pretty much reſembling the trunk of an old tree, ſometimes ſurpriſes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewiſe great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) ſomewhat reſembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its deſtroying ſerpents and peſtiferous inſects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a ſpecies of them is ſaid to have been lately diſcovered in other parts of Africa. Oſtriches are common here, and are ſo ſtrong, that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon their backs.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

As the population of Egypt is almoſt confined to the banks of the Nile, and the reſt of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can ſay little upon this head with preciſion. It ſeems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at preſent not near ſo populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being ſlaves to the Turks. They are, however, ſtill very numerous; but what has been ſaid of the populouſneſs of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The deſcendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking ſlovenly people, immerſed in indolence, and are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Coptis: in their complexions they are rather ſun-burnt than ſwarthy or black. Their anceſtors were once Chriſtians, and in general they ſtill pretend to be of that religion; but Mahometaniſm is the prevailing worſhip among the natives. Thoſe who inhabit the villages and fields, at any conſiderable diſtance from the Nile, I have already mentioned to conſiſt of Arabs or their deſcendants, who are of a deep, ſwarthy complexion, and they are repreſented by the beſt authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reſide in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, and the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dreſs very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dreſs is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers, the other natives of their country wear red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their cloaths are ſilk, when they can afford it; and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exerciſes and diverſions are much the ſame as thoſe made uſe of in Perſia, and other Aſiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight of hand men.

RELI-

RELIGION.] To what I have already ſaid concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthuſiaſts, and have among them their *ſantos*, or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, and without any ceremony intrude into the beſt houſes, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to ſay what ſpecies of Chriſtianity is profeſſed by the Chriſtian Coptis, which are here numerous, but they profeſs themſelves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchaſes a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the moſt ancient language of Egypt. This was ſucceeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs diſpoſſeſſed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabeſque, as it is called, is ſtill the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be ſpoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is paſt diſpute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet ſcarcely a veſtige of it remains among their deſcendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan maſters; but here it is proper to make one obſervation, which is of general uſe. The califs or Saracens who ſubdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The firſt, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomet, made war from conſcience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took poſſeſſion of Alexandria, which contained the moſt magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuſcripts were applied for ſome months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The ſame fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the ſecond race were men of taſte and learning, but of a peculiar ſtrain. They bought up all the manuſcripts that ſurvived the general conflagration, relating to aſtronomy, medicine, and ſome uſeful parts of philoſophy; but they had no taſte for the Greek arts of architecture, ſculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, eſpecially thoſe who called themſelves califs of Egypt, diſgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they impoſed.

All the learning therefore poſſeſſed by the modern Egyptians conſiſts in arithmetical calculations for the diſpatch of buſineſs, the jargon of aſtrology, a few noſtrums in medicine, and ſome knowledge of Arabeſque or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with theſe than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often deſcribed. Their antiquity is beyond the reſearches of hiſtory itſelf, and their original uſes are ſtill unknown. The baſis of the largeſt covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if meaſured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and ſeventeen broad, in which is a marble cheſt, but without either cover or contents, ſuppoſed to have been deſigned for the tomb of the founder. In ſhort, the pyramids of Egypt are the

moſt ſtupendous, and, to appearance, the moſt uſeleſs ſtructures that ever were raiſed by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, ſo called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are ſubterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now loſt. It is ſaid that ſome of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and diſtinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth is a curioſity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themſelves. It is partly under-ground, and cut out of a marble rock, conſiſting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houſes, the intricacies of which occaſion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, moſtly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the ſhaft of which is one ſtone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedeſtal. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the ſhoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nouriſhing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. The conſtruction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. Even a ſlight review of theſe would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as freſh and vivid as when firſt laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coaſt, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red Sea furniſhed Europe, and great part of Aſia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to the founder, Alexander the Great. It ſtands forty miles weſt from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-weſt of Cairo. It roſe upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-houſe erected on the oppoſite iſland of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deſervedly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at preſent is a very ordinary ſea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithſtanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their moſques, bagnios and the like buildings, erected within theſe ruins, preſerve an inexpreſſible air of majeſty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Roſetta, or Raſchid, ſtands twenty-five miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful ſituation, and delightful

proſpects, which command the fine country, or iſland of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewiſe a place of great trade.

Cairo, now Maſr, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air, and its narrow ſtreets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are ſaid to be three miles in circumference. This caſtle is ſaid to have been built by Saladine: at the weſt end are the remains of very noble apartments, ſome of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Moſaic work; but theſe apartments are now only uſed for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually ſent to Mecca. The well, called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechaniſm, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſhew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity; but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is ſhewn in Old Cairo, but captain Norden ſuſpects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itſelf. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gizie, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. The Chriſtians of Cairo practiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium; Bulac; Seyd, on the weſt banks of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; and by the few who have viſited it, it is reported to be the moſt capital antique curioſity that is now extant. The general practice of ſtrangers, who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a janizary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the Iſthmus, that joins Africa with Aſia. The children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all ſorts, callicoes, yellow wax, ſal ammoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſena, and caſſia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, ſpices, callicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they ſend them to Europe. Several European ſtates have conſuls reſident in Egypt, but the cuſtoms of the Turkiſh government are managed by Jews. A number of Engliſh veſſels arrive yearly at Alexandria; ſome of which are laden on account of the owners, but moſt of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the paſha, and the republican by the mamalukes or ſangiacks. The paſha is appointed by the grand ſignior as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the

the ariſtocratical part of the government of Egypt, conſiſts of a divan, compoſed of twenty-four ſangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the ſheik bellet, who is choſen by the divan, and confirmed by the paſha. Every one of theſe ſangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts ſovereign power: the major part of them reſide at Cairo. If the grand ſignior's paſha acts in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not ſuffer him to continue in his poſt; and they have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year ſultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] Theſe are very inconſiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of its government. Some ſay that they amount to a million ſterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Mr. Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janizaries, and aſſafs are the chief, the former amounting to about ſix or eight thouſand, and the latter to between three and four thouſand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not appear, that the paſha ever ventures to employ thoſe troops againſt the Arab or Egyptian princes I have already mentioned, and who have ſeparate armies of their own; ſo that, in fact, their dependence upon the Porte is little more than nominal, and amounts at moſt to feudal ſervices.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs ſat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, till Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 yeas before the birth of Chriſt; and that in the reign of theſe princes, thoſe wonderful ſtructures the pyramids were raiſed, which cannot be viewed without aſtoniſhment. Egypt continued a part of the Perſian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquiſhed Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conqueſts of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being ſeized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Chriſt. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and ſiſter of Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, aſcended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the ſecond calif of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, ſaid to conſiſt of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy; and the ſame prince cauſed the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated into Greek: this tranſlation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the cruſades, between the years 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladine, was ſo dreadful to the Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for ſome time,

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made a figure under thoſe illuſtrious uſurpers, and made a noble ſtand againſt the prevailing power of the Turks, under Selim, who, after giving the Mamalukes ſeveral bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection.

While Selim was ſettling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deſerts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate thoſe marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their poſterity is known all over Europe and Aſia, by the name of Gipſies.

An attempt was made a few years ſince, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whoſe father was a prieſt of the Greek church, but who having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and addreſs, had rendered himſelf extremely popular in Egypt. A falſe accuſation having been made againſt him to the Grand Signior, his head was ordered to be ſent to Conſtantinople; but being apprized of the deſign, he ſeized and put to death the meſſengers who brought this order, and ſoon found means to put himſelf at the head of an army. Being alſo aſſiſted by the dangerous ſituation to which the Turkiſh empire was reduced, in conſequence of the war with Ruſſia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient ſultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he alſo laid claim to Syria, Paleſtine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient Sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to ſupport theſe pretenſions, and actually ſubdued ſome of the neighbouring provinces both of Arabia and Syria. At the ſame time that he was engaged in theſe great enterprizes, he was not leſs attentive to the eſtabliſhing of a regular form of government, and of introducing order into a country that had been long the ſeat of anarchy and confuſion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpoſe he gave great encouragement to the Chriſtian traders, and took off ſome ſhameful reſtraints and indignities, to which they were ſubjected in that barbarous country. He alſo wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greateſt aſſurances of his friendſhip, and that their merchants ſhould meet with every degree of protection and ſafety. His great deſign was ſaid to be, to make himſelf maſter of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey ſhewed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and beſpoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire; but he was not finally ſucceſsful. He was, however, for ſome time extremety fortunate; he aſſumed the titles and ſtate of the ancient ſultans of Egypt, and was ably ſuppored by Sheik Daher, and ſome other Arabian princes, who warmly eſpouſed his intereſts. He alſo ſucceeded in almoſt all his enterprizes againſt the neighbouring Aſiatic governors and baſhas, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the baſe and ungrateful conduct of his brother in-law, Mahomed Bey Abudahap, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was alſo himſelf wounded and taken priſoner; and dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahap afterwards governed Egypt as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Paleſtine to ſubdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great

great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, ſuppoſed to be ſtrangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amneſty, and, truſting to their aſſurances, embraced the Captain Pacha's invitation to dine on board his ſhip, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

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# THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I ſhall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean ſea; on the South, by Tafilet; and on the Eaſt, by Segelmeſſa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the ſame in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the Eaſt, and Morocco on the South, and is ſurrounded in other parts by the ſea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the Eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the North by the Mediterranean, on the South by Mount Atlas, and on the Weſt by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the North and Eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers on the Weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the South; being 220 miles in length from North to South, and 170 in breadth from Eaſt to Weſt.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean ſea; on the South by the country of the Beriberies; on the Weſt by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the Eaſt by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the ſea-coaſt; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the ſtate or kingdom to which it belongs.

This being premiſed, I ſhall conſider the Barbary ſtates as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the ſame kingdom, in the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other ſtates, except in the months of July and Auguſt.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] Theſe ſtates, under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a reſidence there, was conſidered as the higheſt ſtate of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines, which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their government, yet they are ſtill fertile,

not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for ſome time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleaſures of life: for their great people find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and ſpirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces ſalt-petre, and great quantities of excellent ſalt; and lead and iron have been found in ſeveral places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the ſtates of Barbary; but their deſerts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones are occaſionally imported into England. Camels and dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs, a moſt ſerviceable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden. Their cows are but ſmall, and barren of milk. Their ſheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weaſels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Beſides vermin, ſays Dr. Shaw (ſpeaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehenſions we are under, in ſome parts at leaſt of this country, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venomous ſpider, rarely failed to interrupt our repoſe; a refreſhment ſo very grateful, and ſo highly neceſſary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coaſt; and of the ſmaller birds, the capſa-ſparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas at preſent it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horſe and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves; but no eſtimate can be formed as to the populouſneſs of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hoſpitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from thoſe of the metropolis.

Tunis is the moſt poliſhed republic of all the Barbary ſtates. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradeſmen's ſhops, and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſines are indeed exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary; for even the moſt civilized of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tuniſine women are exceſſively handſome in their

their perſons; and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings, chap. ix. verſe 30.) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead ore. The gentlemen in general are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour genteel and complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the ſtreets and city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea; they are, notwithſtanding, far inferior to the Engliſh, and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſines, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hoſpitable inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of cawl on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattraſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is diſguſting. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of theſe ſtates are Mahometans; but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of idiots; and in ſome caſes their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhment, for the moſt notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of theſe ſtates are now

promiſcuouſly called, (becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors) have adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahometan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea-port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken; and ſea-faring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spaniſh, &c. that is ſo well known in all ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity, but they lie ſcattered amidſt ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſaid to be ſtill remaining, but no veſtige of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſcites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence, are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract: theſe were erected under the califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curioſities belonging to this country, excepting its ſalt pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles. Dr. Shaw mentions ſprings found here that are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almoſt in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the beſt accounts the common people live in a very ſlovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. Their public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of the country and ſea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for ſeveral ages it has braved ſome of the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege; and it is ſaid that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. If ſo, the Spaniards muſt have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it in 1775 by land and by ſea, but were repulſed with great loſs, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horſe, and 47 king's ſhips of different rates, and 346 tranſ-

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ports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy the city and gallies, but after ſpending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a ſmall iſland where there is a caſtle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the fineſt of all theſe ſtates, contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. The town itſelf has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is diſtreſſed for want of freſh water.

The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and new town, the latter being the moſt flouriſhing; but great inconveniences attend its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody diſputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Conſtantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the ſtrongeſt cities of Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides, excepting the ſouth-weſt.

Beſides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie ſcattered up and down this immenſe tract of country. The city of Fez, at preſent the capital of the kingdom ſo called, is ſaid to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, beſides merchants and foreigners. Its moſques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is eſteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the ſtraits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, conſort to Charles II. to England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and it muſt have been a moſt noble acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament occaſioned him to blow up its fortifications and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz. Tafilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of theſe ſtates know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures; ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and ſofter than thoſe of Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips, that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, beſides thoſe already mentioned, conſiſt in

elephants' teeth, oſtrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and ſandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewiſe ſaid to carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vaſt numbers of Negroes, who ſerve in their armies, and are ſlaves in their houſes and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furniſh them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the Engliſh in the ports of Morocco, are but half of thoſe paid by other Europeans. It is a general obſervation, that no nation is fond of trading with theſe ſtates, not only on account of their capricious deſpotiſm, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are ſeldom puniſhed.

It has often been thought ſurpriſing, that the Chriſtian powers ſhould ſuffer their marine to be inſulted by theſe barbarians, who take the ſhips of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a ſubſidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwiſe than by ſuppoſing, firſt, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; ſecondly, that no Chriſtian power would be fond of ſeeing Algiers, and the reſt of that coaſt, in poſſeſſion of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would inſtantly carry their effects into the deſerts and mountains, ſo that the benefit reſulting from the conqueſt, muſt be tedious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions againſt Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill conducted and unſucceſsful, as before noticed.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be ſaid to exiſt. The emperors have for ſome ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it. In the abſence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is ſeldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some veſtiges, however, of the califate government ſtill continue; for in places where no military officer reſides, the mufti or high prieſt is the fountain of all juſtice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our juſtices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately ſubject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand ſignior to be his ſuperior, and he pays him a diſtant allegiance as the chief repreſentative of Mahomet. What I have ſaid of Morocco, is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkiſh paſha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand ſignior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious ſubjects to his authority. He cannot even be ſaid to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every ſoldier in the army has a vote in chooſing the ſucceeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodſhed, yet it is no ſooner fixed than he is cheerfully recogniſed and obeyed. It is true, he muſt be confirmed by the Porte; but that is ſeldom refuſed, as the divan is no ſtranger to the diſpoſitions of the people. The power of the dey is deſpotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly

oppreſſing

oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are very tenacious of their property. Theſe deys pay ſlight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand ſignior is at war with a Chriſtian power, he requires their aſſiſtance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which conſiſts of thirty paſhas. Theſe paſhas ſeldom fail of forming parties amongſt the ſoldiers, againſt the reigning dey, whom they make no ſcruple of aſſaſſinating, even in council; and the ſtrongeſt candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is depoſed; ſometimes, though but very ſeldom, he reſigns his authority to ſave his life; and it is ſeldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unſucceſsful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, ſeldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned thoſe of Algiers, but they are now ſaid to be exceeded by Tunis. They conſiſt of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Chriſtians, a ſmall capitation tax, and the cuſtoms paid by the Engliſh, French, and other nations, who are ſuffered to trade with thoſe ſtates. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no ideas of his revenues, becauſe none of his ſubjects can be ſaid to poſſeſs any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ranſoms of Chriſtian ſlaves are his perquiſites. He ſometimes ſhares in the veſſels of the other ſtates, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan ſubjects, and ſix crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewiſe conſiderable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, eſpecially the ſlave trade towards the ſouth. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year. A detachment of the army of theſe ſtates is annually ſent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs, and the prizes they take at ſea ſometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND. } By the beſt accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the ſtrength of his army conſiſts of cavalry mounted by his negro ſlaves. Thoſe wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other ſtate but ſervitude, and no other maſter but that king, and prove the firmeſt ſupport of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco conſiſted only of three ſmall ſhips, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, ſometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, conſiſting of Turks, and cologlies, or the ſons of ſoldiers. Part of them ſerve as marines on board their veſſels. About 1000 of them do garriſon duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Beſides theſe, the dey can bring 2000 Mooriſh horſe to the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little truſted. Thoſe troops are under excellent diſcipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary ſtates keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; ſo that a few years ago they refuſed to ſend any tribute to the Turkiſh emperor, who ſeems to be ſatisfied with the ſhadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extenſive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the

earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, the preſent inhabitants have ſcarcely any merchant ſhips belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which though increaſed ſince the laſt attack of the Spaniards, are but now few and ſmall, and ſome years ago did not exceed ſix ſhips, from thirty-ſix to fifty guns. The admiral's ſhip belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but ſubject to military law. With ſuch a contemptible fleet, theſe infidels not only harraſs the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of preſents.

HISTORY,] There perhaps is no problem in hiſtory ſo unaccountable as the decadence of the ſplendor, power, and glory of the ſtates of Barbary; which, when Rome was miſtreſs of the world, formed the faireſt jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the ſeventh century that, after theſe ſtates had been by turns in poſſeſſion of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became maſters of almoſt all Spain, from whence their poſterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who preſſed them ſo hard, that they called to their aſſiſtance the two famous brothers Barbaroſſa, who were admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, and who, after breaking the Spaniſh yoke, impoſed upon the inhabitants of all thoſe ſtates (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unſucceſsful; and, as obſerved, the inhabitants have in fact ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke likewiſe.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the ſucceſſors of thoſe ſovereigns of that country who are called xeriffs, and whoſe powers reſembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a ſet of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them ſome able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almoſt a continued ſtate of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Chriſtian princes ever ſince; nor does the crown of Great Britain ſometimes diſdain, as in the year 1769, to purchaſe their friendſhip with preſents.

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## Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope.

*See the Table and Map.*

THIS immenſe territory is, comparatively ſpeaking, very little known: there is no modern traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts; ſo that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of ſeveral inland countries. In many material circumſtances, the inhabitants of this extenſive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyſſinia, who are tawny, and profeſs a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm, and Paganiſm, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the ſea-coaſts, which have been viſited and ſettled

ſettled by ſtrangers, they are pagans: and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, poſſeſs a very extenſive juriſdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are groſsly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in ſmall ſocieties, each governed by its own prince. In Abyſſinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but, on examination, it is found that the authority of theſe princes ſtands on a precarious footing, each tribe or ſeparate body of their ſubjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, to whoſe commands, however contrary to thoſe of the *negaſcha negaſcht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to ſubmit.—This indeed muſt always be the caſe among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very ſimple and imperfect ſtate. In the ſucceſſion to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the deſcendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, might be ſuppoſed more various than we find it is: in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of ſoil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile. This ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of this ſort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are reduced to perfect deſerts, as the name of the latter denotes. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Caſati, and Mchenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and ſilver. The baſer metals likewiſe are found in theſe and many other parts of Africa. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the produce and traffic of this miſerable quarter of the globe. On the Guinea or weſtern coaſt, the Engliſh trade to James Fort, and other ſettlements near the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and ſpirituous liquors, for the perſons of the natives. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth conſiſts in the number of his family, whom he ſells like ſo many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the ſlave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. Theſe are carried on from the ſame coaſt, where the Dutch and French, as well as Engliſh, have their ſettlements for the purpoſe. The Portugueſe are in poſſeſſion of the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immenſe tract they became maſters of by their ſucceſſive attempts and happy diſcovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coaſt of Zanguebar, on the eaſtern ſide, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewiſe for ſeveral others, as ſena, and aloes, civet, ambergriſe, and frankincenſe. The Dutch have ſettlements towards the ſouthern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, where their ſhips bound for India uſually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them ſpirituous liquors.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this continent is little known, and probably affords no materials which deſerve to render it more ſo. We know from the ancients, who ſailed a conſiderable way round the coaſts, that the inhabitants were in the ſame rude ſituation near 2000 years ago in which they are at preſent, that is, they had little of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by ſuppoſing that nature has placed ſome inſuperable barrier between the natives of this diviſion of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former being ſo long accuſtomed to a ſavage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progreſs in civility or ſcience. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch, at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination, or even idea, of the European manner of life.

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# AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern, or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean, the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora Iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt long. 53. north lat. 12. 30 leagues eaſt of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa: it is 80 miles long, and 5[illegible] broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their paſſage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gum tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtraits at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is ſituated in eaſt long. 44-30. north lat. 12. about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of little value, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are five, Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazeia, and Comora, ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt long. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants

are

are Negroes of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. eaſt long. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and is extremely rough between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips, in their voyage to and from India, generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant, deſirable, and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign: watered with numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; ſome white, ſome negroes, ſome Mahometans, ſome Pagans. The whites and thoſe of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifices of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new-built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jewiſh Sabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are deſcended from Jews who formerly ſettled here, though none knows how, or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1641; but the people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1652; ſince which the natives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for ſlaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It is ſituated in eaſt long. 56, ſouth lat. 20, about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding 50 large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh; and though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep. It was formerly ſubject to the Dutch, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

BOURBON. The iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt long. 54, ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides: but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons.

ſoons. Indeed, the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke, and ſulphur, with a hideous roaring noiſe, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land; ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and reſins, particularly benzoin of an excellent ſort in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergriſe, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells are found upon the ſhore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleaſant to the palate. The French firſt ſettled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now ſome conſiderable towns in the iſland, with a governor; and here their Eaſt Indies ſhips touch and take in refreſhments.

There are a great many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where deſcribed.

Leaving therefore the eaſtern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immenſe ocean lying between the two grand diviſions of the globe, having Europe, Aſia, and Africa, or the old world, on the eaſt: and America, or the new world, on the weſt; towards which diviſions we now ſteer our courſe, touching in our way at the following iſlands upon the African coaſt, that have not yet been deſcribed, viz. St. Helena, Aſcenſion, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira iſlands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The firſt iſland on this ſide the Cape is St. Helena, ſituated in weſt long. 6-4, ſouth lat. 16, being 1200 miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and 1800 eaſt of South America. The iſland is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very ſteep, and only acceſſible at the landing place, in a ſmall valley at the eaſt ſide of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually daſhing on the ſhore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the iſland but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again. The Engliſh plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the laſt, however, moſt part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed; ſo that the flour they uſe is almoſt wholly imported from England; and in times of ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes inſtead of bread. Though the iſland appears on every ſide a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-ſtuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geeſe, and turkies, with which they

they ſupply the ſailors, taking in exchange, ſhirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, ſilks, muſlin, arrack, ſugar, &c.

St. Helena is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe on the feſtival of the empreſs Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine the Great, whoſe name it ſtill bears. It does not appear that the Portugueſe ever planted a colony here: and the Engliſh East India company took poſſeſſion of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurpriſe. However, the Engliſh, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and at the ſame time took three Dutch East India ſhips that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the iſland, moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents. The East India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions here in their way home; but the iſland is ſo ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them outward bound, that they very ſeldom ſee it then.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides a public table well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and principal paſſengers, are welcome.

ASCENSION. This iſland is ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. ſouth lat. 600 miles north-weſt of St. Helena: it received its name from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion-day; and is a mountainous barren iſland, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a ſafe convenient harbour, where the East India ſhips generally touch to furniſh themſelves with turtle, or tortoiſes, which are very plentiful here, and vaſtly large, ſome of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The ſailors going aſhore in the night time, frequently turn 2 or 3 hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are ſometimes ſo cruel as to turn many more than they uſe, leaving them to die on the ſhore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a ſmall iſland, lying in 6-1 weſt lon. and 1-30 ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and was alſo diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for ſome time; but afterwards deſerted it. This iſland now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to ſettle there, except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

The four following iſlands, viz. ST. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDO PO, are ſituated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and are ſtill in the poſſeſſion of that nation, and furniſh ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands are ſo called from a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, over againſt which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. weſt lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered in the year 1460, by the Portugueſe, and are about 20 in number; but ſome of them being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the moſt conſiderable, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe. The air, generally ſpeaking, is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the deſcendents of Europeans and Negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portugueſe viceroy reſides, is the moſt fruitful, beſt inhabited, and largeſt of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet

it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden ſtuff; but the plant of moſt conſequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs; and here is alſo plenty of hogs and poultry, and ſome of the prettieſt green monkies, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an Engliſh and French ſquadron the laſt war), is ſituated on the eaſt ſide, has a good port, and is ſeldom without ſhips, thoſe outward-bound to Guinea or the Eaſt Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreſhments.

In the iſland of MAYO or MAY, immenſe quantities of ſalt is made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea-water, which at ſpring tides is received into a ſort of pan, formed by a ſand-bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. Here the Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade for ſalt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels that come to load with it, which in ſome years amount to a hundred or more. The ſalt coſts nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all Negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The Negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea-water is ſo exceſſively clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The iſland of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks out like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-ſtones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is ſituated within cannon ſhot of Cape Verd. N. lat. 14-43. W. long. 17-20, and was ſo called by the Dutch from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance ariſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verd, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the Engliſh, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms, every where triumphant, again reduced it, but it was reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the Engliſh the laſt war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 deg. weſt long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greateſt part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at 10,000 hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common

and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile as to produce two harveſts in a year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar loaf, about 15 miles in circumference, and, according to the account of Sprat, biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, nearly three miles perpendicular.—Lately aſcertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world until they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards, in the year 1405, to whom they ſtill belong. It is remarkable that though the natives reſembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras, are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's Voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27. north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 weſt long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee, in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill, of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt; the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Funchal, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the ſea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519: but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicate fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax; it abounds alſo

with

with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar-trees, and thoſe that yield dragon's blood, maſtic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the Weſt, where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to the Braſils in America. The Portugueſe not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, malmſey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. No leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira, it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when expoſed to the ſun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venemous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands, one is called Porto Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds, except the ſouth-weſt; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we cloſe the account of Africa, we continue our courſe weſtward through this immenſe ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Weſtern Iſlands, that are ſituated between 25 and 32 deg. weſt long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles weſt of Portugal, and as many eaſt of Newfoundland, lying almoſt in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Joſhua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Liſbon, was by ſtreſs of weather driven to theſe iſlands, which he found deſtitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemiſh iſlands. On his arrival at Liſbon, he boaſted of this diſcovery, on which the Portugueſe ſet ſail immediately, and took poſſeſſion of them, and to whom they ſtill belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air; but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered: and alſo by the inundations of ſurrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, alſo cattle, fowl, and fiſh. It is ſaid that no poiſonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largeſt, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the moſt important of theſe iſlands, on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious, and has good anchorage, but is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the reſidence of the governor of theſe iſlands, as well as of the biſhop.

# AMERICA.

## ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vaſt extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many reſpects more to that of nature than any other diviſion of the globe. The particular circumſtances of this country require that we ſhould in ſome meaſure vary our plan, and before deſcribing its preſent ſtate, afford ſuch information with regard to its diſcovery, as is moſt neceſſary for ſatisfying our readers.

Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their ſupport to commerce. An interference of intereſts inſpired a mutual rivalſhip; but in traffic Venice was much ſuperior. She engroſſed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the moſt valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Aſia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this ſtate of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whoſe knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of ſailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. But this propoſal of ſailing weſtward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as abſurd. Stung with diſappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his ſcheme before the court of France, where his reception was ſtill more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next reſort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the moſt oppoſite imaginable to a great but uncertain deſign. In Portugal, where the ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery about this time began to operate, he had reaſon to expect better ſucceſs. But the Portugueſe contented themſelves with creeping along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open ſea, and of riſquing the whole at once. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, ſtill remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his deſign, the more difficulty he found in accompliſhing it, and he was inſpired with that noble enthuſiaſm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded, and chiefly through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the iſſue of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; the moſt ſtriking was the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to threate

that the laws of nature were altered to an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him. His ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. But the firmneſs of the commander, and much more the diſcovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus firſt landed on one of the Bahama iſlands, but there, to his ſurpriſe and ſorrow, diſcovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indies he was in queſt of. In ſteering ſouthward, however, he found the iſland called Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and what was of ſtill greater conſequence, as it inſured his favourable reception at home, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he received, conſiderable quantities of gold. This iſland therefore he propoſed to make the centre of his diſcoveries; and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the neceſſary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utenſils, and ornaments of the country he had diſcovered. This entry into Barcelona was a ſpecies of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the iſlands in that great ſea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. Thus were the Weſt Indies diſcovered by ſeeking a paſſage to the Eaſt; and even after the diſcovery, ſtill conceived to be a part of the eaſtern hemiſphere. The preſent ſucceſs of Columbus, his former diſappointments, and the glory attending ſo unexpected a diſcovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his deſigns now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of ſeventeen ſail was immediately prepared; all the neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were ſeveral of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the moſt ample authority. It is impoſſible to determine whether the genius of this great man in firſt conceiving the idea of theſe diſcoveries, or his ſagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, moſt deſerve our admiration. Inſtead of hurrying from ſea to ſea, and from one iſland to another, which, conſidering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with ſuch a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curioſity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the diſcoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himſelf the unavailing applauſe of viſiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleaſure of ſeeing them. With this view he made for Hiſpaniola, where he eſtabliſhed a colony, and erected forts in the moſt advantageous grounds for ſecuring the dependence of the natives. Having ſpent a conſiderable time in this employment, and laboured for eſtabliſhing this colony with as much zeal and aſſiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to aſcertain the importance of his other diſcoveries, and to examine what advantages were moſt likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from ſome ſpecimens, ſeemed a rich diſcovery; but whether it was an iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To aſcertain this

point

point was the preſent object of his attention. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of iſlands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. Theſe iſlands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactreſs, who was always uppermoſt in his memory. In the ſame voyage Jamaica was diſcovered. But to ſo many difficulties was Columbus expoſed, on an unknown ſea, among rocks, ſhelves, and ſands, that he returned to Hiſpaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the firſt ſucceſs of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the ſame ſucceſs, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain ſet every ſpring in motion againſt him; and there is no difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds of accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of an extenſive and complicated plan. An officer was diſpatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a ſpy and informer, and whoſe preſence plainly demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to ſet out on a third expedition, ſtill more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He deſigned to ſtand to the ſouthward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly weſtward, that he might diſcover what opening that might afford to India, or what new iſlands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs inconveniencies from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a ſmart gale, and went before it ſeventeen days to the weſtward. At the end of this time, a ſeaman ſaw land, which was an iſland on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having paſſed this iſland, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was ſurpriſed with an appearance he had never ſeen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occaſioned by a conflict between the tide of the ſea and the rapid current of the immenſe river Oronoco. But ſailing forward, he plainly diſcovered that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any iſland ſhould ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent: but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of this diſcovery, Columbus landed at ſeveral places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the ſpirit of diſcovery ſpread itſelf widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wiſhed to acquire the reputation of Columbus without poſſeſſing his abilities. The Portugueſe diſcovered Braſil, which makes at preſent the moſt valuable part of their poſſeſſions: Cabot, a native of Briſtol, diſcovered the north-eaſt coaſts, which now compoſe the Britiſh empire in North America: and Americus Veſpuſius, a merchant of Florence, ſailed to the ſouthern continent of America, and, being a

man of addreſs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed on by the name: all the world knows that Columbus was the firſt diſcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the ſmalleſt mortifications to which this great man was compelled to ſubmit. For ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after diſcovering the continent, and making ſettlements in the iſlands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himſelf at court, was reſtored to favour, and undertook another voyage in which he ſuffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola endeavoured to purchaſe the ſame advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good ſenſe and humanity. Theſe iſlands contained mines of gold.—The Indians only knew where they were ſituated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and cruelty againſt thoſe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Caſas, a witneſs of thoſe barbarous depopulations, ſays, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer into the thick of the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-ſhot, or ſurpriſed and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only viſited the continent: from what they ſaw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ſtill more valuable conqueſt. Fernando Cortez is diſpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horſes, and a ſmall number of field pieces. With this inconſiderable force, he propoſes to ſubdue the moſt powerful ſtate on the continent of America; this was the empire of Mexico: rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, paſſionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whoſe fame in arms ſtruck terror in the neighbouring nations. Never hiſtory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had ſubſiſted for ages: its inhabitants, it is ſaid, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a poliſhed and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whoſe wiſdom is ſtill admired in this particular, that the year conſiſted nearly of 365 days. Their ſuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the ſure baſis of laws combined with religion, ſeemed to bid defiance to time itſelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, ſituated in the middle of a ſpacious lake, was the nobleſt monument of American induſtry: it communicated to the continent by immenſe cauſeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ſtone, its ſquares, and market-places, the ſhops which glittered with gold and ſilver, and the ſumptuous

tuous palaces of Montezuma, ſome erected on columns of jaſper, and containing whatever was moſt rare, curious, or uſeful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it againſt the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble oppoſition from the nations along the coaſt of Mexico, who were terrified at their firſt appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spaniſh officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which iſſued from their hands, the wooden caſtles which had wafted them over the ocean, ſtruck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched they ſpared no age or ſex, nothing ſacred or profane. At laſt, the inhabitants of Tlaſcala, and ſome other ſtates on the coaſt, deſpairing of being able to oppoſe them, entered into their alliance, and join armies with thoſe terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progreſs, diſcovers a volcano of ſulphur and ſalt-petre, whence he could ſupply himſelf with powder. Montezuma heard of his progreſs without daring to oppoſe it. This ſovereign is reported by the boaſting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vaſſals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not reſiſt a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans, whoſe allegiance would be ſhaken by the firſt reverſe of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spaniſh victories, which always marched before them.

By ſending a rich preſent of gold, which only whetted the Spaniſh avarice, Montezuma haſtened the approach of the enemy. No oppoſition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is ſet apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the maſters of the new world. He had good reaſon, however, to diſtruſt the affected politeneſs of this emperor, under which he ſuſpected ſome plot for his deſtruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindneſs, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was ſurrounded with artillery, the moſt frightful of all engines to the Americans. At laſt a circumſtance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hoſtilities. In order to ſecure a communication by ſea to receive the neceſſary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a ſmall garriſon behind him at Vera Cruz, which has ſince become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He underſtood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garriſon in his abſence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himſelf was privy to this violence, and had iſſued orders that the head of the ſlain Spaniard ſhould be carried through his provinces, to deſtroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in perſon to the emperor, attended by a few of his moſt experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez ſeemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the ſame time, he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be perſuaded of it, unleſs he returned along with them to their reſidence, which would remove all jealouſy between the two nations. The ſucceſs of this interview ſhewed the ſuperiority of the European addreſs. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and ſurrounded by his guards, gave himſelf up a priſoner, to be diſpoſed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing

might be accompliſhed. The Americans had the higheſt reſpect, or rather a ſuperſtitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the ſame time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his taſtes and paſſions, maintained the eaſy ſovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their reſpect; Montezuma was the firſt to teach them more politeneſs. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards; Montezuma aſcended the battlements of his priſon, and harangued his Mexicans into order and ſubmiſſion. This farce continued a long while; but on one of theſe occaſions, when Montezuma was ſhamefully diſgracing his character by juſtifying the enemies of his country, a ſtone, from an unknown hand, ſtruck him on the temple, which in a few days occaſioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated ſo ſtrongly with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who from the beginning diſcovered an implacable animoſity againſt the Spaniſh name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans ruſhed againſt thoſe very men, whom a little before they had offered to worſhip. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly eſtabliſhed to be expelled from Mexico. The immenſe tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 690,000 marks of pure gold, beſides an amazing quantity of precious ſtones, a fifth part of which, diſtributed among his ſoldiers, ſtimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to periſh rather than part with ſo precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no ſmall efforts for independence; but all their valour, and deſpair itſelf, gave way before what they called the Spaniſh thunder. Guatimozin and the empreſs were taken priſoners. This was the prince who, when he lay ſtretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him diſcover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, ſaid to his high prieſt, condemned to the ſame puniſhment, and who loudly expreſſed his ſenſe of the pains that he endured, "Do you take me to lie on a bed of roſes?" The high prieſt remained ſilent, and died in an act of obedience to his ſovereign. Cortez, by getting a ſecond emperor into his hands, made a complete conqueſt of Mexico; with which the Caſtille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his ſoldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, ſituated towards the equinoctial line and the tropic of Capricorn, which was ſaid to abound in gold and ſilver, and precious ſtones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deſerved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spaniſh government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuſe to adventure on new enterprizes; certain it is, that this extenſive country, more important than Mexico itſelf, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three private perſons. The names of theſe were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a prieſt, but a man of conſiderable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth and of low education. Pizarro, the ſoul of the

enterprize, could neither read nor write. They ſailed over into Spain, and without difficulty obtained a grant of what they ſhould conquer. Pizarro then ſet out for the conqueſt of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horſe, and twelve ſmall pieces of cannon, drawn by ſlaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the ſame prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniſh nation, and were beſide, of a character ſtill more ſoft and unwarlike, it need not ſurpriſe us, after what has been ſaid of the conqueſt of Mexico, that with this inconſiderable force, Pizarro ſhould make a deep impreſſion on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumſtances likewiſe which conſpired to aſſiſt him, and which, as they diſcover ſomewhat of the hiſtory, religion, and ſtate of the human mind in this immenſe continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of thoſe uncommon men, who, calm and diſpaſſionate themſelves, can obſerve the paſſions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had a particular veneration for the ſun. He pretended therefore to be deſcended from that luminary, whoſe worſhip he was ſent to eſtabliſh, and whoſe authority he was entitled to bear. By this ſtory, romantic as it appears, he eaſily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his juriſdiction; a larger ſtill he ſubdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the moſt laudable purpoſes. He united and civilized the diſtreſſed barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arms; he ſoftened them by the inſtitution of a benevolent religion; in ſhort, there was no part in America, where agriculture and the arts were ſo aſſiduouſly cultivated, and where the people were of ſo mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ſucceeded Mango, diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as deſcendants of their great God the Sun. The twelfth of theſe was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru. To ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was ſprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Hueſcar, of a different mother, had claimed the ſucceſſion to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Hueſcar, as a priſoner, in the tower of Cuſco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed ſtate was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro advanced to it. The ominous predictions of religion too, as in moſt other caſes, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the ſubjection of the empire, by unknown perſons, whoſe deſcription exactly correſponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In theſe circumſtances, Atabalipa, inſtead of oppoſing the Spaniards, ſet himſelf to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whoſe temper partook of the meanneſs of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with thoſe he called Barbarians, but who, however, though leſs acquainted with the cruel art of deſtroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himſelf. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previouſly inſtructed, furiouſly attacked the guards of that prince,

and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were preſſing forward, without regard to their particular ſafety, to defend the ſacred perſon of their monarch, ſeized Atabalipa himſelf, whom they carried off to the Spaniſh quarters. Pizarro, with the ſovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the maſter of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as ſtrongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ranſom. On this occaſion the ancient ornaments, amaſſed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treaſures of the moſt magnificent temples, were brought out to ſave him, who was the ſupport of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he propoſed, without releaſing the emperor, to get into his poſſeſſion an immenſe quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro cauſed ſome ambarraſſment in his affairs. The friendſhip, or rather the external ſhew of friendſhip, between theſe men, was ſolely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprizing ſpirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling paſſion. When their intereſts, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any meaſures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the moſt conſiderable ſhare of the treaſure, ariſing from the emperor's ranſom, becauſe he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro inſiſted on being upon an equal footing; and, at length, leſt the common cauſe might ſuffer by any rupture between them, this diſpoſition was agreed to: the ranſom is paid in without delay, a ſum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000l. ſterling, and conſidering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the ſhares of the chief commanders and officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000l. Engliſh money. With ſuch fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be ſubjected to the rigours of military diſcipline. They inſiſted on being diſbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, ſenſible that avarice would ſtill detain a number in his army, and that thoſe who returned with ſuch magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to purſue the ſame plan for acquiring gold. Theſe wiſe reflections were abundantly verified; it was impoſſible to ſend out better recruiting officers than thoſe who had themſelves ſo much profited by the field; new ſoldiers conſtantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immenſe ranſom was only a farther reaſon for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they diſcovered whether he had another treaſure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an averſion againſt the Peruvian emperor, on account of ſome inſtances of craft and policy which he obſerved in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that, by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To juſtify this cruel proceeding, a ſham charge was exhibited againſt the unhappy prince, in which he was accuſed of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumſtances of equal impertinence. The only juſt ground of accuſation againſt him was, that his brother Hueſcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was conſiderably palliated, becauſe Hueſcar had been plot-

ting his deſtruction, that he might eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility ſet up the full brother of Hueſcar; Pizarro ſet up a ſon of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to eſtabliſh themſelves by the aſſiſtance of the army. Theſe diſtractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at preſent rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought againſt one another; their battles accuſtomed the harmleſs people to blood; and ſuch is the preference of a ſpirit of any kind raiſed in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the courſe of thoſe quarrels among themſelves, the inhabitants of Peru aſſumed ſome courage againſt the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cauſe of all their calamities. The loſſes which the Spaniards met with in theſe quarrels, though inconſiderable in themſelves, were rendered dangerous by leſſening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preſerve among the inhabitants of the new world. This conſideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in ſettling the Spaniards in the country. But as ſoon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war againſt the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himſelf maſter of Cuſco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in theſe conqueſts, new grants and ſupplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the ſea coaſt, to the ſouthward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the ſouthward of Pizarro's government. This diviſion occaſioned a warm diſpute between them, each reckoning Cuſco within his own diſtrict. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He perſuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the ſouthward of Cuſco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as eaſily conquered as Peru. He offered him his aſſiſtance in the expedition, the ſucceſs of which he did not even call in queſtion.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of ſubduing a kingdom for himſelf, liſtened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged neceſſary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; loſing many of his men as he paſſed over mountains of an immenſe height, and always covered with ſnow. He reduced, however, a very conſiderable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the diviſion of the Spaniſh troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indiſpoſed, and Almagro removed at a diſtance, they were well nigh ſucceſsful. The latter, however, no ſooner got notice of the ſiege of Cuſco, than, relinquiſhing all views of diſtant conqueſts, he returned to ſecure the grand objects of their former labours. He raiſed the ſiege with infinite ſlaughter of the aſſailants; but having obtained poſſeſſion of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This diſpute occaſioned a long and bloody ſtruggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the reſentment fierce on both ſides, becauſe the fate of the vanquiſhed was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the ſecurity of a rival, in whoſe dangers and triumphs he had long ſhared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the courſe of this civil war, many Peruvians ſerved in the Spaniſh armies, and learned from the practice of

Chriſtians,

Chriſtians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable reſolution. They ſaw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguiſhable reſentment and avarice, and they conjectured that theſe paſſions would never permit their conteſts to ſubſide. Let us retire, ſaid they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will ſpeedily deſtroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This reſolution was inſtantly put in practice; the Peruvians diſperſed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each ſide been exactly equal, this ſingular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with ſucceſs. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the richeſt empire in the word, was ſtill urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſome time before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter the mountains of Potoſi, compoſed of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to control, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of old Almagro, now declared his ſon of the ſame name their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who ſent over Veca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing in the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of La Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that De Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry, by proper bribes or promiſes, which a miniſtry would always expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice a council was ſent over to control De Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The parties, but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily, and even went ſo far as to behead a governor, who

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was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America men whoſe character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gaſga, a man differing only from Caſtro by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſga, forſook their old connections: the admiral was gained over by inſinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf was offered a full indemnity, provided he ſhould return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than ſubmit to any officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partizans, therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken priſoner. His execution followed ſoon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a ſacrifice for the ſecurity of the Spaniſh dominion over that country.

The conqueſt of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American hiſtory which deſervee to be treated under the preſent head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent or of the iſlands, if it contains either inſtruction or entertainment, ſhall be handled under theſe particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever compoſes the character of the natives of America; and as theſe are extremely ſimilar all over this part of the globe, we ſhall ſpeak of them in general, in order to ſave continual repetitions, noticing at the ſame time, when we enter upon the deſcriptions of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

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## Of the original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE diſcovery of America has not only opened a new ſource of wealth to the buſy and commercial part of Europe, but an extenſive field of ſpeculation to the philoſopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and obſerve the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human underſtanding, when untutored by ſcience, or untainted with corruption. So ſtriking ſeemed the diſparity between the inhabitants of Europe, and the natives of America, that ſome ſpeculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impoſſible they ſhould be of the ſame ſpecies, or derived from one common ſource. This concluſion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the neceſſaries of life, the force of cuſtom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines

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of humanity are to be diſcovered among them all, notwithſtanding the various ſhades which characteriſe nations, and diſtinguiſh them from each other.

When the thirſt of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immerſed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence, and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art; even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of ſpirits. The Indians therefore are, in general, grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations in Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſement, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably, is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak, but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuits, which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands: and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the ſame reaſon extremely ſmall, when compared with civilized ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders uſeful to one another. Theſe ſmall tribes live at an immenſe diſtance; they are ſeparated by a deſert frontier, and hid in the boſom of impenetrable and almoſt boundleſs foreſts.

There is eſtabliſhed in each ſociety a certain ſpecies of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; becauſe over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly ſimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inſtruments of ſubjection in poliſhed ſocieties, an American has

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no method by which he can render himſelf conſiderable among his companions, but by a ſuperiority in perſonal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very laviſh in her perſonal diſtinctions, where all enjoy the ſame education, all are pretty much equal, and will deſire to remain ſo. Liberty therefore is the prevailing paſſion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this ſentiment, is better ſecured than by the wiſeſt political regulations. They are very far, however, from deſpiſing all ſorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wiſdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enliſt under the banners of the chief, in whoſe valour and military addreſs they have learned to repoſe their confidence. In every ſociety therefore there is to be conſidered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy. Among thoſe tribes which are moſt engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, becauſe the idea of having a military leader, was the firſt ſource of his ſuperiority, and the continual exigencies of the ſtate requiring ſuch a leader, will continue to ſupport, and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather perſuaſive than coercive: he is reverenced as a father rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice, and one act of ill-judged violence would put him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be conſidered as an ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whoſe influence being conſtantly augmented by time, is more conſiderable. But this ſource of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries, that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In moſt countries therefore age alone is ſufficient for acquiring reſpect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only ſource of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among thoſe perſons buſineſs is conducted with the utmoſt ſimplicity, and which may recall to thoſe who are acquainted with antiquity, a picture of the moſt early ages. The heads of families meet together in a houſe or cabin, appointed for the purpoſe. Here the buſineſs is diſcuſſed, and here thoſe of the nation, diſtinguiſhed for their eloquence or wiſdom, have an opportunity of diſplaying thoſe talents. Their orators, like thoſe of Homer, expreſs themſelves in a bold figurative ſtyle, ſtronger than refined, or rather ſoftened nations can well bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive. When the buſineſs is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the whole nation partakes. The feaſt is accompanied by a ſong, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like thoſe of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind, and their muſic and dancing accompanies every feaſt.

It often happens, that thoſe different tribes or nations, ſcattered as they are at an immenſe diſtance from one another, meet in their excurſions after prey. If there ſubſiſts no animoſity between them, which ſeldom is the caſe, they behave in the moſt friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a ſtate of war, or if there has been no previous intercourſe between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the moſt ſavage fury.

War,

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their moſt common motive for entering into a war, when it does not ariſe from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themſelves for the death of ſome loſt friend, or to acquire priſoners, who may aſſiſt them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their ſociety. Theſe wars are either undertaken by ſome private adventurers, or at the inſtance of the whole community. In the latter caſe, all the young men, who are diſpoſed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their deſign to accompany him. For every thing among theſe people is tranſacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, faſts ſeveral days, during which he converſes with no one, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which the preſumption natural to ſavages generally renders as favourable as he could deſire. A variety of other ſuperſtitions and ceremonies are obſerved. One of the moſt hideous is ſetting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among ſome nations muſt formerly have been the caſe, ſince they ſtill continue to expreſs it in clear terms, and uſe an emblem ſignificant of the ancient uſage. Then they diſpatch a porcelane, or large ſhell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

"A generous friendſhip no cold medium knows,
"But with one love, with one reſentment glows."

They think that thoſe in their alliance muſt not only adopt their enmities, but have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch with themſelves. And indeed no people carry their friendſhips, or their reſentments, ſo far as they do: and this is what ſhould be expected from their peculiar circumſtances: that principle in human nature, which is the ſpring of the ſocial affections, acts with ſo much the greater force, the more it is reſtrained. The Americans, who live in ſmall ſocieties, who ſee few objects and few perſons, become wonderfully attached to theſe objects and perſons, and cannot be deprived of them, without feeling themſelves miſerable. Their ideas are too confined, their breaſts are too narrow to entertain the ſentiments of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumſtance, while it makes them cruel and ſavage to an incredible degree, towards thoſe with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendſhips, and to the common tie which unites the members of the ſame tribe, or of thoſe different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, ſome facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder without informing our reaſon, and we ſhould be bewildered in a number of particulars ſeemingly oppoſite to one another, without being ſenſible of the general cauſe from which they proceed.

Having finiſhed all the ceremonies previous to the war, they iſſue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a conſiderable diſtance to receive thoſe laſt tokens of eternal friendſhip.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurpriſe; and indeed in theſe they are ſuperior to all nations in the world. Accuſtomed to continual wandering in the foreſts, having

having their perceptions ſharpened by keen neceſſity, and living in every reſpect according to nature, their external ſenſes have a degree of acuteneſs which at firſt view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immenſe diſtance, by the ſmoke of their fires, which they ſmell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and diſtinguiſh with the utmoſt facility. They even diſtinguiſh the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the preciſe time when they paſſed, where an European could not, with all his glaſſes, diſtinguiſh footſteps at all. Theſe circumſtances, however, are of ſmall importance, becauſe their enemies are no leſs acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making uſe of any thing by which they might run the danger of a diſcovery. They light no fire to warm themſelves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that cloſes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, maſſacre all the children, women, and helpleſs old men, or make priſoners of as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. But when the enemy is appriſed of their deſign, and coming on in arms againſt them, they throw themſelves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to reſemble. Then they allow a part to paſs unmoleſted, when all at once, with a tremendous ſhout, riſing up from their ambuſh, they pour a ſtorm of muſket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the ſame cry. Every one ſhelters himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give a ſecond fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is ſo much weakened as to be incapable of farther reſiſtance. But if the force on each ſide continues nearly equal, the fierce ſpirits of the ſavages, inflamed by the loſs of their friends, can no longer be reſtrained. They abandon their diſtant war, they ruſh upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and inſulting their enemies with the bittereſt reproaches. A cruel combat enſues, death appears in a thouſand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouſe the fury of ſavages. They trample, they inſult over the dead bodies, tearing the ſcalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts, and ſometimes devouring their fleſh. The flame rages on till it meets with no reſiſtance; then the priſoners are ſecured, thoſe unhappy men, whoſe fate is a thouſand times more dreadful than thoſe who have died in the field. The conquerors ſet up a hideous howling to lament their friends they have loſt. They approach in a melancholy and ſevere gloom to their own village; a meſſenger is ſent to announce their arrival, and the women, with frightful ſhrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their huſbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders, a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of thoſe who have fallen, the ſhrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in theſe cries, according as each is moſt connected with the deceaſed by blood or friendſhip. The laſt ceremony

is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war, or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are tied to the ſtake, where they commence their death ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they pull off the fleſh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off his fleſh, thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood in an enthuſiaſm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them, whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increaſe the torment. This continues often five or ſix hours; and ſometimes, ſuch is the ſtrength of the ſavages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into ſo profound a ſleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood, that eaſily take fire, but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with

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ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, even outdo the men in this ſcene of horror; while the principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake, ſmoking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmokes too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments: he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop.*

Theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, becauſe they ſerve to ſhew in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the paſſions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civiliſed life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it; among theſe all

is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war, or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are tied to the ſtake, where they commence their death ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they pull off the fleſh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off his fleſh, thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood in an enthuſiaſm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them, whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increaſe the torment. This continues often five or ſix hours; and ſometimes, ſuch is the ſtrength of the ſavages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into ſo profound a ſleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood, that eaſily take fire, but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with

ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, even outdo the men in this ſcene of horror; while the principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake, ſmoking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmokes too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments: he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop.*

Theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, becauſe they ſerve to ſhew in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the paſſions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civiliſed life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it; among theſe all

things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting? Has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and cheerfulneſs, in hopes of ſurpriſing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed, in general, is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have ſaid reſpecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit obſerving the force of their friendſhip, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the ſociety is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occaſion a thouſand ceremonies are practiſed, denoting the moſt lively ſorrow. Of theſe, the moſt remarkable, as it diſcovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be preſent, and to join in the ſolemnity. At this time all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn occaſion (which is renewed every ten years among ſome tribes, and every eight among others), are taken out of their graves: thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the village is diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. I cannot deſcribe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the moſt authentic account of thoſe nations.

Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror, in the ſeveral carcaſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; while others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention

tion with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcasses, disgustful as they are with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders, through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit; then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking their last farewel, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned, that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happened to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd

and inconſiſtent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have ſome immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of their gods, they pay them no ſort of worſhip. Like all rude nations, however, they are ſtrongly addicted to ſuperſtition. They believe in the exiſtence of a number of good and bad genii or ſpirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happineſs or miſery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diſeaſes proceed: and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The miniſters of the genii are the jugglers, who are alſo the only phyſicians among the ſavages. Theſe jugglers are ſuppoſed to be inſpired by the good genii, moſt commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the aſſiſtance of the ſick, and are ſuppoſed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the diſeaſe, and in what way they muſt be treated. But theſe ſpirits are extremely ſimple in their ſyſtem of phyſic, and, in almoſt every diſeaſe, direct the juggler to the ſame remedy. The patient is incloſed in a narrow cabin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red-hot; on this they throw water, until he is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This coarſe method, which coſts many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewiſe the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the ſavages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of theſe remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are adminiſtered.

It ſhould be obſerved by the reader, that the particulars which have juſt been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteriſtics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America, were very different. On the firſt appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their diſcoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemiſphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averſe to toil, but ſeemed incapable of it; and when roufed by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they ſunk under taſks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with eaſe. This feebleneſs of conſtitution ſeemed almoſt univerſal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were alſo ſtruck with the ſmallneſs of their appetite for food. The conſtitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded in their opinion, the abſtinence of the moſt mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans inſatiably voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was ſufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very ſparing, ſo limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for their own conſumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their induſtry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were eaſily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards ſettled in any diſtrict, ſuch a ſmall addition of ſupernumerary mouths ſoon exhauſted their ſcanty ſtores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with thoſe of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, leſs vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle, but daſtardly ſpirit, more enſlaved by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence.

A General

# A General Deſcription of AMERICA.

THIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD, extends from the 80th degree North, to the 56th degree South latitude: and where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree of Weſt longitude from London; ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth 3690. It ſees both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the weſt it has the Paciſic, or great South Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the North, the other on the South, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a ſort of iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the iſthmus and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the Eaſt Indies.

Before we begin to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, we muſt, according to juſt method, take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers, which diſdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordelleras, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the iſthmus of Darien to the ſtraits of Magellan, they divide the whole ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are conſtantly covered with ſnow. Chimborazo, the higheſt of the Andes, is 20,633 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the ſummit are always covered with ſnow. Carazon was aſcended by the French aſtronomers, and is ſaid to be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly compoſed of gentle aſcents, or level plains, we know of no conſiderable mountains, except thoſe towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, ſeparating them from Canada and Louiſiana, which we call the Apalachian or Alligany mountains; if that may be conſidered as a mountain, which upon one ſide is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

America is, without queſtion, that part of the globe which is beſt watered; and that not only for the ſupport of life, and all the purpoſes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the others. In North America, ſuch is the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Creator of the univerſe, thoſe vaſt tracts of country, ſituated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immenſe and unknown diſtance from the ocean, are watered by inland ſeas, called the Lakes of Canada,

which not only communicate with each other, but give riſe to ſeveral great rivers, particularly the Miſſiſippi, running from north to ſouth till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a courſe, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progreſs the vaſt tribute of the Illinois, the Miſaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers, ſcarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary courſe from the Miſſiſſippi, till it empties itſelf into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almoſt navigable to their heads, lay open the inmoſt receſſes of this great continent, and afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantage, whenever the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited, and by an induſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern ſide of North America, beſides the noble rivers Hudſon, Delawar, Suſquehana, and Potowmack, ſupplies ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation; hence many parts of the ſettlements are ſo advantageouſly interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if poſſible, in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies much the two largeſt rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate river. The firſt riſing in Peru, not far from the South Sea, paſſes from Weſt to Eaſt, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a courſe of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata riſes in the heart of the country, and having its ſtrength gradually augmented, by an acceſſion of many powerful ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf with ſuch vehemence into the ſea, as to make its taſte freſh for many leagues from land. Beſides theſe there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoco is the moſt conſiderable.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide of the equator, muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. It is a treaſury of nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and ſilver of America have ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe valuable metals, that they are become vaſtly more common; ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewiſe to lower their value. To theſe, which are chiefly the production of Spaniſh America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the Britiſh empire in this part of the world. Of theſe are the plentiful ſupplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fuſtic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut; ſugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balſams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jeſuit's bark, mechoacan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the diſcovery of America, we were either entire ſtrangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Aſia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoeſe, who then engroſſed the trade of the eaſtern world.

This continent has alſo a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants; and ſo fertile is the ſoil, that many exotic productions are nouriſhed in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians ſtill live in the quiet poſſeſſion of many large tracts, America, ſo far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, Engliſh, and Portugueſe. The Spaniards, as they firſt diſcovered it, have the largeſt and richeſt portion, extending from New Mexico and Louiſiana, in North America, to the ſtraits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have ſome forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they ſcarcely deſerve to be conſidered as proprietors of any part of the ſouthern continent.

Next to Spain, the moſt conſiderable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the firſt diſcovery of that continent by Sebaſtian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about ſix years after the diſcovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated ſolely to an iſland upon its coaſt. It was a long time before we made an attempt to ſettle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, firſt ſhewed the way by planting a colony in the ſouthern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his miſtreſs queen Elizabeth.

The French, indeed, from this period until the concluſion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually poſſeſſed Canada and Louiſiana, comprehending all that extenſive inland country, reaching from Hudſon's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the ſame name on the ſouth; regions which all Europe could not people in the courſe of many ages: but no territory, however extenſive, no empire, however boundleſs, could gratify the ambition of that aſpiring nation: hence, under the moſt ſolemn treaties, they continued in a ſtate of hoſtility, making gradual advances upon the back of our ſettlements, and rendering their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent by a chain of forts, well ſupplied with all the implements of war. At the ſame time they laboured inceſſantly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, by various arts, even by intermarriages, and whom they not only trained to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into theſe ſavages the moſt unfavourable notions of the Engliſh, and the ſtrength of their nation. The Britiſh colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea-coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began in 1755 to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total diſſolution. The colonies, in their diſtreſs, called out aloud to the mother country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were ſent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and commanded by a ſet of heroes, the Scipios of that age. A long war ſucceeded, which ended glorioufly for Great Britain; for after oceans of blood were ſpilt, and every inch of ground was bravely diſputed, the French were not only driven from Canada and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquiſh all that part of Louiſiana, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi.

Thus at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved, ſecured, and extended ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, it ſhould ſeem that we might have extended our claim quite to the pole itſelf, nor did any nation ſeem inclined to diſpute the property of this northernmoſt country with us. But our flattering proſpects reſpecting our American poſſeſſions, have been annihilated by that unhappy conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies, which, after eight years continuance, with great expence of treaſure and blood, ended in the eſtabliſhment of a new republic, ſtyled "The Thirteen United States of America."

The multitude of iſlands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongſt the Spaniards, Engliſh, and French. The Dutch indeed poſſeſs three or four ſmall iſlands, which in any other hands would be of no conſequence: and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deſerve to be named among the proprietors of America. We ſhall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but as Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudſon's Bay, with thoſe vaſt regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include within the following Table, the colonies that have been formed into regular governments which bring us to the 50th degree of north lat.

The

## The Grand Diviſions of NORTH AMERICA.

| Colonies. | Leng. | Bread. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Towns. | Diſt. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Britain | 850 | 750 | 318,750 | | | Great Brit. |
| Province of Quebec. | 600 | 200 | 100,000 | Quebec | | Ditto |
| New Scotland<br>New Brunſw. | 350 | 250 | 57,000 | Halifax<br>Shelburne | | Ditto |
| New England | 550 | 200 | 87,000 | Boſton | 2760 W. | Unit. States |
| New York | 300 | 150 | 24,000 | New York | | Ditto |
| New Jerſey | 160 | 60 | 10,000 | Perth Amboy | | Ditto |
| Pennſylvania | 300 | 240 | 15,000 | Philadelphia | | Ditto |
| Maryland | 140 | 135 | 12,000 | Annapolis | | Ditto |
| Virginia | 750 | 240 | 80,000 | Williamſb. | | Ditto |
| North Caro.<br>South Caro.<br>Georgia | 700 | 380 | 110,000 | Edenton<br>Charles-town<br>Savannah | | Ditto<br>Ditto<br>Ditto |
| Eaſt Florida<br>Weſt Florida | 500 | 440 | 100,000 | St. Auguſtine<br>Penſacola | | Spain<br>Ditto |
| Louiſiana | 1200 | 945 | 516,000 | New Orleans | 4 80 S. W. | Ditto |
| New Mexico & California | 2000 | 1000 | 600,000 | St. Fee<br>St. Juan | 4320 S. W. | Ditto<br>Ditto |
| Mexico, or New Spain | 2000 | 600 | 318,000 | Mexico | 4900 S. W. | Ditto |

## Grand Diviſions of SOUTH AMERICA.

| Nations. | Leng. | Bread. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Cities. | Diſt. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Terra Firma | 1400 | 700 | 700,000 | Panama | 4650 S. W. | Spain |
| Peru | 1800 | 600 | 970,000 | Lima | 5520 S. W. | Ditto |
| Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B. | | | | | | |
| Guiana | 780 | 480 | 250,000 | Surinam<br>Cayenne | 3840 S. W. | Dutch<br>French |
| Brazil | 2500 | 700 | 940,000 | St. Sebaſtian | 6000 S. W. | Portugal |
| Parag. or La Plata | 1500 | 1000 | 1,000,000 | Buen. Ayres | 6040 S. W. | Spain |
| Chili | 1200 | 500 | 206,000 | St. Jago | 6600 S. W. | Spain |
| Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia | 1400 | 460 | 325,000 | The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there. | | |

The

## The principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to the EUROPEANS are,

| | Islands. | Length. | Breadth. | Square Miles. | Chief Towns. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In the Gulf of St. Laur. | Newfoundland | 350 | 200 | 55,500 | Placentia | Great Britain |
| | Cape Breton | 110 | 80 | 4,000 | Louisburg | Ditto |
| | St. John's | 60 | 30 | 500 | Charlotte-Town | Ditto |
| In the Atlan. | The Bermuda isles | 20,000 acres | | 40 | St. George | Ditto |
| | The Bahama ditto | very numerous | | | Naſſau | Ditto |
| West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America | Jamaica | 140 | 60 | 6,000 | Kingſton | Ditto |
| | Barbadoes | 21 | 14 | 140 | Bridgetown | Ditto |
| | St. Chriſtopher's | 20 | 7 | 80 | Baſſe-terre | Ditto |
| | Antigua | 20 | 20 | 100 | St. John's | Ditto |
| | Nevis and Montſerrat | each of theſe is 18 circum. | | | Charles-Town<br>Plymouth | Ditto<br>Ditto |
| | Barbuda | 20 | 12 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Anguilla | 30 | 10 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Dominica | 28 | 13 | 150 | | Ditto |
| | St. Vincent | 24 | 18 | 150 | Kingſton | Ditto |
| | Granada | 30 | 15 | 150 | St. George's | Ditto |
| | Tobago | 32 | 9 | 80 | | France |
| | Cuba | 700 | 90 | 38,400 | Havannah | Spain |
| | Hiſpaniola | 450 | 150 | 30,000 | St. Domingo | Do. & France |
| | Porto Rico | 100 | 49 | 3,200 | Porto Rico | Spain |
| | Trinidad | 90 | 60 | 2,897 | St. Joſeph | Ditto |
| | Margarita | 40 | 24 | 624 | | Ditto |
| | Martinico | 90 | 30 | 300 | St. Peter's | France |
| | Guadaloupe | 45 | 30 | 250 | Baſſe-terre | Ditto |
| | St. Lucia | 23 | 12 | 90 | | Ditto |
| | St. Bartholomew<br>Deſeada, and<br>Marigalanta | all of them inconſiderable. | | | | Ditto<br>Ditto<br>Ditto |
| | St. Euſtatia | 29 circum. | | | The Bay | Dutch |
| | Curaſſou | 30 | 10 | 342 | | Ditto |
| | St. Thomas | 15 circum. | | | | Denmark |
| | St. Croix | 30 | 10 | | Baſſe End | Ditto |

# BRITISH AMERICA.

## NEW BRITAIN.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean, on the Eaſt; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt. Its length is computed at 850 miles, and 750 broad.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are numerous in this country, and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders, by whom they were firſt diſcovered. The principal bay is that of Hudſon, and the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davis, and Belleiſle.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren: to the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been ſuppoſed incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhoſpitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but, in all probability, we have not tried the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in ſuch caſes, the place from whence the ſeed comes is of great moment. All this ſeverity and long continuance of winter, and the barrenneſs of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are the mooſe-deer, ſtags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

All the animals of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals. When that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurpriſing phænomenon. But what is yet more ſurpriſing, and what is indeed one of the moſt ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom

and

and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the deſcription of America, it may be proper to obſerve in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. If with reſpect to ſize, we ſhould compare the animals of the new and old world, we ſhall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Aſiatic elephant, for inſtance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largeſt native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which ſome alſo call the American camel, is ſtill leſs. Their beaſts of prey are quite diveſted of that courage, which is ſo often fatal to man in Africa or Aſia. They have no lions, nor, properly ſpeaking, either leopard, or tyger. Travellers, however, have affixed thoſe names to ſuch ravenous animals, as are there found moſt to reſemble thoſe of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are deſpicable in compariſon of the tyger, the leopard, and the panther of Aſia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to meaſure ſix feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tyger, as ſome affect to call it, ſeldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the ſouthern parts of America, are different from thoſe in the ſouthern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but thoſe which, being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the ſtag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Ruſſia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the ſouth with us, are utterly unknown in ſouthern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be ſmaller, than thoſe of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wiſdom of the Author of it, that the ſmalleſt animals multiply in the greateſt proportion. The goat exported from Europe to ſouthern America, in a few generations becomes much leſs; but then it alſo becomes more prolific, and inſtead of one kid at a time, or two at the moſt, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would ſoon be unequal to the conteſt, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them become the tyrants of thoſe who call themſelves the maſters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country ſhew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where ſurrounds them, for the greateſt part of the year: in other reſpects they are very ſavage. In their ſhapes and faces they do not reſemble the Americans who live to the ſouthward: they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeides of Europe, already deſcribed.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of

of a north-weſt paſſage to China and the Eaſt Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of diſcovery it ſeems manifeſt, that no practicable paſſage ever can be found. Frobiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtaid here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas, in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

Another attempt towards a diſcovery was made in 1746 by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men, who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit, has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ but four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have ſeveral forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. The French attacked, took, and made ſome depredations on them the laſt war, it was ſaid to the amount of 400,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent, of which we have the greateſt plenty, and which, in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs with us. Though the workmanſhip may happen to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs we bring from Hudſon's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage.

CANADA,

# CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600<br>Breadth 200 | between | 61 and 81 weſt longitude.<br>45 and 52 north latitude. | 100,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudſon's Bay, on the North and Eaſt; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like moſt of thoſe American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot and exceedingly pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence and other rivers, are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, it contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of wood and animals that are found in theſe provinces, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them here at ſome length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more magnificent to the ſight; the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds; and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are deſcribing produces, amongſt others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain 20 perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow

elms,

elms, and remain there till April. Here are alſo found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow ſeveral tufts of flowers, which, when ſhaken in the morning, before the dews fall off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into ſugar, the ſeed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the ſun-plant, which reſembles a marygold, and grows to the height of ſeven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in ſome of the mountains, we are told, ſilver has been found. This country alſo abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinai, Deſprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river iſſues from the lake Ontario, and taking its courſe north-eaſt, waſhes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the ſea, it becomes broad, and ſo deep, that ſhips of the line contributed, in the war before the laſt, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rozieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. In its progreſs it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleaſant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence, is that only upon which the French (now ſubjects of Great Britain) have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water, which theſe countries environ. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oiwego, longer, but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Huron ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a ſtupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of travellers at ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from ſo great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as ſnow, being all converted into foam, through thoſe violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is often heard at the diſtance of 15 miles, and ſometimes much farther. The vapour ariſing from the fall may ſometimes be ſeen at a great diſtance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of ſmoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow,

rainbow, whenever the ſun and the poſition of the traveller favours. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim, or croſs the ſtream in the rapids above the fall, and are found daſhed in pieces below; and ſometimes the Indians, through careleſſneſs or drunkenneſs, have met with the ſame fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented with ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Lawrence, as we have already obſerved, is the outlet of theſe lakes; by this they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French, when in poſſeſſion of the province, built forts at the ſeveral ſtraits, by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river. By theſe they effectually ſecured to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America, which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] Theſe make the moſt curious, and hitherto the moſt intereſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada. It is to the ſpoils of theſe that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and moſt of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been deſcribing. The animals that find ſhelter and nouriſhment in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, ſquirrels of a large ſize and greyiſh hue, hares, and rabbits. The ſouthern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers or caſtors, of which the white is highly valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the moſt curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds, they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader, reſembling their own ſachem or prince.—It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even in ſome inſtances the ſuperiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw-colour; but it is obſerved, that the lighter their colour, the leſs quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear them with unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and Engliſh have of late found the ſecret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beſides the fur, this uſeful animal produces the true caſtoreum, which

which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles: the value of this drug is well known. The fleſh of the beaver is a moſt delicious food, but when boiled it has a diſagreeable reliſh.

The muſk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, (weighing about five or ſix pounds), which it reſembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid, that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as chamois leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make uſe of are hardly penetrable by a muſket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal, but differs in no other reſpect from thoſe of Europe. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country: their fleſh is white, and good to eat; and they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common: and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring upon, and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black at jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the ſmell of which is nauſeous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it ſprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the aſſailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that ſhe places her young when purſued. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; that called the flying ſquirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and is very lively, except when aſleep, which is often the caſe; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's ſleeve, pocket, or muff; he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among twenty perſons. The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog; when roaſted, he eats full as well as a ſucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two ſorts of bears here, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black

colour; but the former is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unleſs when wounded, or oppreſſed with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July, when it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are ſaid to ſupport themſelves during the winter, when the ſnow lies from four to ſix feet deep, by ſucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after, than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war. The reaſon is, becauſe the chace ſupplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goſhawks, tercels, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are ſcarce in Canada, but ſnipes, and other water-game are plentiful. A Canadian raven is ſaid by ſome writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, ſwallows, and larks; no leſs than twenty-two different ſpecies of ducks, and a great number of ſwans turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large waterfowl: but always at a diſtance from houſes. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thruſhes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very ſhewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of ſpring. The fly-bird is thought to be the moſt beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-ſnake chiefly deſerves attention. Some of theſe are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is moſt remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is ſcaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is ſaid there grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales; ſo that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horſe by his teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, from which it has its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-ſnake herb, the root of which (ſuch is the goodneſs of Providence) is a certain antidote againſt the venom of this ſerpent, and that with the moſt ſimple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaſter to the wound. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked; and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling three times with its tail. When purſued, if it has but little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers; nevertheleſs, the ſavages chace it, and find its fleſh very good; and being alſo of a medicinal quality, it is uſed by the American apothecaries in particular caſes.

Some writers are of opinion that the fiſheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more like to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greateſt variety of any in the world, and theſe in the greateſt plenty and of the beſt ſorts.

Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the rivers and lakes, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe, ſalmon, trout, turtle, lobſters, the chaouraſon, ſturgeon, the æchigau; the gilthead, tunny, ſhad, lamprey, ſmelts, conger-eels, mackarel, ſoals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howl-

ing,

ſing, is an amphibious creature; the largeſt are ſaid to weigh two thouſand pounds; their fleſh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather; their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Laurence are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſtcoats are made, which are exceſſively ſtrong, and muſket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fiſh, quite round, or rather oval: there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſou is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger: its colour is a ſilver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes, and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly above the ſurface of the water: the fowls, which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens his throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt water fiſh, taken on the coaſts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous; but we cannot preciſely determine the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increaſe. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were ſuppoſed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 220 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper

and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemen's houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richelieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood in the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Riveres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, come here and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the rivers.

Montreal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniencies of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well formed ſtreets; and when it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner; and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands falls gradually to the water. The place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it has ſuffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their former rights and privileges.

In the year 1774, an act was paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that it ſhould be lawful for his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by warrant under his or their ſignet or ſign manual,

nual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to conſtitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to conſiſt of ſuch perſons reſident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor leſs than ſeventeen, as his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, ſhall be pleaſed to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or abſence of any of the members of the ſaid council, in like manner to conſtitute and appoint others to ſucceed them. And this council, ſo appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are veſted with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the conſent of the governor, or, in his abſence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not impowered to lay taxes, except for the purpoſe of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or ſuch local conveniences. By this act, all matters of controverſy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are alſo allowed by this act not only to profeſs the Romiſh religion, but the Popiſh clergy are inveſted with a right to claim and obtain their accuſtomed dues from thoſe of the ſame religion. This act occaſioned a great alarm both in England and America, and appears to have contributed much towards ſpreading a ſpirit of diſaffection to the Britiſh government in the colonies. The city of London petitioned againſt the bill before it received the royal aſſent; declaring, that they apprehended it to be entirely ſubverſive of the great fundamental principles of the Britiſh conſtitution, as well as of the authority of various ſolemn acts of the legiſlature. And in one of the petitions of the American congreſs to the king, they complained, that by the Quebec act, the limits of that province were extended, the Engliſh laws aboliſhed, and the French laws reſtored, whereby great numbers of Britiſh freemen were ſubjected to the latter; and that an abſolute government, and the Roman catholic religion, were alſo eſtabliſhed by that act, throughout thoſe vaſt regions that border on the weſterly and northerly boundaries of the Proteſtant Engliſh ſettlements.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The nature of the climate, ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarſe linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was poſſeſſed by the French, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and amongſt nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion, many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted, to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe, and ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being ſo fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all that they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable, that many of theſe nations actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany in New York, and

travelled 250 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchaſed the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of theſe ſavages!

Since we became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country has been computed to employ about 60 ſhips, and 1000 ſeamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500l. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with unmanufactured materials, indiſpenſably neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be hardly poſſible to overcome certain inconveniencies, proceeding from natural cauſes; I mean the ſeverity of the winter, which is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts of the country which lie three degrees ſouth of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which render it difficult for very large ſhips to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but veſſels from 300 to 400 tons are not prevented by theſe falls from going there annually.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

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# NOVA SCOTIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 350 | between | 43 and 49 North latitude. | 57,000 |
| Breadth | 250 | | 60 and 67 Eaſt longitude. | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic ocean, Eaſt; by the ſame ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, Weſt. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*: the province and government, now ſtyled NEW BRUNSWICK, is bounded on the weſtward of the river St. Croix, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the ſouthern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the ſame boundary as far as the weſtern extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eaſtward by the ſaid bay to the gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte, to the ſouth by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix, aforeſaid, to the mouth of the Muſquat River, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and from thence by a due eaſt line acroſs the iſthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eaſtern lot above deſcribed, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt.

RIVERS.]

RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit run from Weſt to Eaſt, and fall into the bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy Bay, or the ſea a little to the eaſtward of it.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The ſeas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy Bay, and the gulf of St. Laurence. The leſſer bays are, Chenigto and Green Bay upon the iſthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the ſouth; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-eaſt; the bay of Chedibucto on the ſouth-eaſt; the bay of the iſlands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Proſper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Ryſignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the ſouth: port La Tour, on the ſouth-eaſt; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the ſouth ſide of Fundy Bay, and port Roſeway, now the moſt populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port and Epis, on the eaſt. Cape Fogeri, and Cape Canceau, on the ſouth-eaſt. Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the ſouth, Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche on the ſouth-weſt.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European conſtitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intenſely cold But though the cold in winter and the heat in ſummer are great, they come on gradually, ſo as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From ſuch an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, is almoſt a continued foreſt; and agriculture, though attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, has hitherto made little progreſs. In moſt parts, the ſoil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninſula to the ſouthward, which do not yield to the beſt land in New England; and, in general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new ſettlements and bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land hath been cleared, which abounds in timber, and ſhip-loads of good maſts and ſpars have been ſhipped from thence already.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time been brought into it, and thrive well. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the Cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his ſecretary ſir William Alexander,

Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh, till the peace of Utrecht, and their deſign in acquiring it, does not ſeem to have ſo much ariſen from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Halifax ſtands upon Chebucto bay, very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lies during the winter, and in the ſummer puts to ſea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fiſhery, and to ſee that the articles of the late peace, relative thereto, are duly obſerved by the French. The town has an intrenchment, and is ſtrengthened by forts of timber. The other towns of leſs note are Annapolis Royal, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Fundy, and, though but a ſmall place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing a thouſand veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity. St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy, on the weſt ſide. Since the concluſion of the war, the emigration of the Loyaliſts to this province from the United States hath been very great: by them new towns have been raiſed, as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water ſide, and is ſaid to contain already 9000 inhabitants.

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# UNITED STATES of AMERICA.

OF the riſe, progreſs, and moſt remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the eſtabliſhment of the United States of America, we have already given an account, in our view of the principal tranſactions in the hiſtory of Great Britain. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain In the name, and by the authority, of the inhabitants of the united colonies of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's Bay, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, they declared, that they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; and that, as ſuch, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent ſtates may of right do. They alſo publiſhed articles of confederation, and perpetual union, between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "the United States of America,"

America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themſelves to aſſiſt each other againſt all violence that might threaten all, or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks that might be levelled againſt all, or any one of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatſoever. Each of the colonies reſerved to themſelves alone the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general intereſts of the United States, it was determined, that delegates ſhould be annually appointed in ſuch manner as the legiſlature of each ſtate ſhould direct, to meet in congreſs on the firſt Monday in November of every year, with a power reſerved to each ſtate to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to ſend others in their ſtead, for the remainder of the year. No ſtate is to be repreſented in congreſs by leſs than two, nor more than ſeven members; and no perſon is capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of ſix years; nor is any perſon being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, ſhall receive any ſalary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining queſtions in the United States, in congreſs aſſembled, each ſtate is to have one vote. Every ſtate is to abide by the determinations of the United States in congreſs aſſembled, on all queſtions which are ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation are to be inviolably obſerved by every ſtate, and the union is to be perpetual; nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unleſs ſuch alteration be agreeed to in a congreſs of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legiſlatures of every ſtate. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the thirteen Uunited Colonies of America, as independent ſtates. Holland acknowledged them as ſuch April 19, 1782; and on the 30th of November, 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned at Paris, by the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, in which his Britannic majeſty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and theſe articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as ſuch February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Ruſſia in July 1783.

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# NEW ENGLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 550<br>Breadth 200 | between | 41 and 49 north latitude.<br>67 and 74 weſt longitude. | 87,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North-eaſt by Nova Scotia; on the Weſt by Canada; on the South by New York; and on the Eaſt by the Atlantic.

Diviſions.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The northern diviſion, or government | New Hampſhire — | Portſmouth. |
| The middle diviſion | Maſſachuſett's Colony | BOSTON, N. Lat. 42-35 W. Lon. 70-37. |
| The ſouth diviſion | Rhode Iſland, &c. | Newport. |
| The weſt diviſion | Connecticut — | New London. Hertford. |

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piſcataway; 6. Saco; 7. Caſco; 8. Kennebeque; and 9. Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode Iſland, and Providence plantations; Monument-Bay, Weſt-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod; Boſton-Harbour; Piſcataway, and Caſco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape Small-Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother-country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, and the length, and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh water lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which being frozen over ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at 34 minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on the ſhorteſt day, it riſes at 35 minutes after ſeven in the morning, and ſets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but farther back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands became rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſett's bay the ſoil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and paſture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of people. They likewiſe malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and ſpruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes.

They

They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple-tree has produced ſeven barrels of cyder in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſaut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods uſed in dying or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ſhip-building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior to thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furniſhed the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantites of pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſts, and indeed ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furniſh many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horſes of New England are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few ſheep, and the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, is not nearly ſo fine as that of England. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, minks, martens, racoons, ſables, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moſe or mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts; the common light grey mooſe, which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together: and the large black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way: and theſe prodigious horns are ſhed every year. This animal does not ſpring or riſe in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but when chaſed, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geeſe, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, ſwans, heathcocks, herons, ſtorks, blackbirds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain ſeaſons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattle-ſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared parts of theſe countries, where, with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noice in the ſummer evenings.

The ſeas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fiſh, and even whales of ſeveral kinds, ſuch as the whalebone whale, the ſpermaceti whale, which yields ambergriſe, the fin-backed whale, the ſcrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and ſend beſides ſome ſhips every year to fiſh for whales in Greenland, and

as far as Falkland iſlands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with ſtrong teeth and jaws, perſecutes the whale in theſe ſeas; but, afraid of his monſtrous ſtrength, they ſeldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot, there is a mackarel fiſhery; they likewiſe fiſh for cod in winter, which they dry in the froſt.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] There is not one of the colonies which can be compared in the abundance of people, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of the mother-country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates; but the greateſt part of the people is compoſed of a ſubſtantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependence upon any but Providence, and their own induſtry. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independent, or poſſeſs more of the conveniencies of life; they are uſed from their infancy to the exerciſe of arms: and before the conteſt with the mother country, they had a militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military ſtrength is now much more conſiderable. The inhabitants of Maſſachuſett's Bay are eſtimated at 350,000.

Connecticut is ſaid, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of Britiſh America, as well in the abundance of people, as cultivation of ſoil. Its inhabitants are about 206,000. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robuſt, ſtout, and tall. The greateſt care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept ſtraight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; ſo that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handſome, and genteel, and modeſt and reſerved in their manners and behaviour. They are not permitted to read plays, nor can they converſe about whiſt, quadrille, or operas; but it is ſaid that they will talk freely upon the ſubjects of hiſtory, geography, and other literary ſubjects. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

New Hampſhire, of late years hath greatly increaſed in population, ſo that in 1783, the number of inhabitants was reckoned to amount to 82,200; and of Rhode Iſland province to 50,400.

RELIGION.] Calviniſm, from the principles of the firſt ſettlers, has been very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants alſo formerly obſerved the ſabbath with a kind of Jewiſh rigour; but this hath of late been much diminiſhed. There is at preſent no eſtabliſhed religion in New England; but every ſect of Chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of their religion, and is equally under the protection of law. The Connecticut province hath lately provided a biſhop for the epiſcopalians among them, by ſending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring biſhops of the epiſcopal church in that kingdom.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boſton, the capital of New England, ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſett's Bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited.

inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow, that two ſhips can ſcarcely ſail through abreaſt; but within the harbour there is room for 500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the bay, ſtands Fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs in all the plantations. This caſtle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, ſo that it is ſcarcely poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle, when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north ſide, extends a row of warehouſes for the merchants, and to this pier ſhips of the greateſt burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour, in the ſhape of a half moon; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The head of the pier joins the principal ſtreet of the town, which is, like moſt of the others, ſpacious and well built. The trade of Boſton was ſo conſiderable in the year 1768, that 1200 ſail entered or cleared at the cuſtom-houſe there.

Cambridge, in the ſame province, four miles from Boſton, has an univerſity, containing two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Havard College, and Stoughton Hall, with a well-furniſhed library. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, a treaſurer, three profeſſors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was firſt granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony ſeal.

The other towns in New England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiouſly ſituated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURERS.] The trade of New England is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and to the Weſt Indies, and even for ſome parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields, are principally pig and bar iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty free; alſo maſts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl aſhes, ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſent to the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other Britiſh iſles, as grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod-fiſh dried. They likewiſe ſent thither cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe-ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-ſkins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a moſt valuable fiſhery upon their coaſts in mackarel and cod, which employs vaſt numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and the Weſt Indies, to a conſiderable amount. Their whale-fiſhery has been already mentioned. The arts moſt neceſſary to ſubſiſtence, are thoſe which the inhabitants of New England have been at the greateſt pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, diſtilling, paper-making, and ſalt works, are upon the improving hand. The buſineſs of ſhip-building is one of the moſt conſiderable, which Boſton, Newbury, or the other ſea-port towns in New England carry on.

Ships

Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently the merchants of New England have them conſtructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh oil principally, they ſend them upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late unhappy difference aroſe, the amount of Engliſh manufactures and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, was not leſs, at an average of three years, than 395,000l. Our imports from the ſame were calculated at 370,000l.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New England is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, King James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-eaſt coaſt of America was ſome time called. No ſettlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authory. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out a ſhip or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1621. By this time the religious diſſenſions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbiſhop Laud perſecuted all ſorts of non-conformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of the moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conſcience. America opened an extenſive field. There they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious policy they were inclined to. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 perſons embarked for New England, and built a city, which becauſe they had ſailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were expoſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſorts of conveniencies, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and ſupported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themſelves, for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles Town, and Boſton, which laſt has ſince become the capital of New England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry, which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs

ſucceſs occaſions thoſe diſſenſions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age, ſuperior to many prejudices, they had not that open and generous way of thinking, which at preſent diſtinguiſhes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of univerſal toleration, which, to the honour of the firſt ſettlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigotted Calviniſts; and though they had felt the weight of perſecution themſelves, they had no charity for thoſe who profeſſed ſentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions; and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral ſlips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread over the country. Such was that of New Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſett's colony (for that is the name by which the government firſt erected in New England was diſtinguiſhed), for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiments, and maintaining that the civil magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, became extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony, driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterpriſing ſpirits; and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New England, after being on ſhip-board for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue, under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great meaſure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making ſuch laws as they thought proper, without ſending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be oppoſite to thoſe of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his miniſters wanted to deſtroy all charters and liberties, the Maſſachuſett's colony was accuſed of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, and by a judgment in the King's Bench of England was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that

period,

period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entruſted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular; or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, were to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, were valid without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints, the people had ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only choſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, choſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords; and the governor depended upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport.

But the government of New England has been entirely changed, in conſequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain; of the origin and progreſs of which an account hath been given in another place. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American Congreſs, abſolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate-houſe in that town.

A conſtitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Maſſachuſets, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and eſtabliſhed by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October, 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the inſtitution, maintenance, and adminiſtration of government, is to ſecure the exiſtence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furniſh the individuals who compoſe it, with the power of enjoying, in ſafety and tranquility, their natural rights, and the bleſſings of life; and that whenever theſe great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take meaſures neceſſary for their proſperity and happineſs. They expreſſed their gratitude to the great Legiſlator of the univerſe, for having afforded them, in the courſe of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or ſurprize, of entering into an original, explicit, and ſolemn compact with each other; and of forming a new conſtitution of civil government for themſelves and their poſterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in ſociety, publicly, and at ſtated ſeaſons, to worſhip the Supreme Being; and that no ſubject ſhould be hurt, moleſted, or reſtrained, in his perſon, liberty or eſtate, for worſhipping God in the manner and ſeaſon moſt agreeable to the dictates of his own conſcience; or for his religious profeſſion or ſentiments; provided he did not diſturb the public peace, or obſtruct others in their religious worſhip.

It was alſo enacted, that the ſeveral towns, pariſhes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious ſocieties, ſhould, at all times, have the exclu-

excluſive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their ſupport and maintenance. That all monies paid by the ſubject to the ſupport of public worſhip, and of the public teachers, ſhould, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the ſupport of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious ſect or denomination, provided there were any on whoſe inſtructions he attended; otherwiſe it might be paid towards the ſupport of the teacher or teachers of the pariſh or precinct in which the ſaid monies ſhould be raiſed. That every denomination of Chriſtians, demeaning themſelves peaceably, and as good ſubjects of the commonwealth, ſhould be equally under the protection of the law: and that no ſubordination of any ſect or denomination to another ſhould ever be eſtabliſhed by law.

It was likewiſe declared, that as all power reſided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the ſeveral magiſtrates and officers of government, veſted with authority, whether legiſlative, executive, or judicial, are their ſubſtitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no ſubject ſhould be arreſted, impriſoned, deſpoiled, or deprived of his property, immunities, or privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled, or deprived of his life, liberty, or eſtate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legiſlature ſhould not make any law that ſhould ſubject any perſon to a capital or infamous puniſhment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the preſs is eſſential to the ſecurity of freedom in a ſtate; and that it ought not, therefore, to be reſtrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep, and to bear arms, for the common defence; but that as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the conſent of the legiſlature; and that the military power ſhould always be held in an exact ſubordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it.

It was likewiſe enacted, that the department of legiſlation ſhould be formed by two branches, a ſenate, and a houſe of repreſentatives; each of which ſhould have a negative on the other. That the ſenators, conſiſting of forty, and the members of the houſe of repreſentatives, ſhould be elected annually; and that every male perſon, being twenty-one years of age, or upwards, who had reſided in any particular town in the commonwealth, for the ſpace of one year, and having a freehold eſtate within the ſaid town, of the annual income of three pounds, or any eſtate of the value of ſixty pounds, ſhould have a right to vote for ſenators and repreſentatives of the diſtrict of which he was an inhabitant. And that there ſhould be a ſupreme executive magiſtrate, who ſhould be ſtyled, the governor of the commonwealth of Maſſachuſet's, and alſo a lieutenant-governor, both of whom ſhould be choſen annually by the whole body of electors in the commonwealth, and aſſiſted by nine counſeliors, choſen by ballot, out of the ſenate. The ſecretary, treaſurer, receiver-general, notaries public, and naval officers, to be choſen annually by the ſenators and repreſentatives. The judiciary power to be ſeptennial, and the delegates to congreſs ſhall be annually elected by and out of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, or general court. The governor has a negative on bills ſent to him for aſſent from the general court, but has no control in their choice of officers.

The ſtate of Rhode Iſland admits their original charter as the rule of their government. New Hampſhire and Connecticut have not yet eſta-

 bliſhed

bliſhed their forms of government, or have chiefly adopted that of Maſſachuſet's bay.

It is worthy of notice, that ſince the commencement of the war between Great Britain and the colonies, and even while that war was carried on with great animoſity on both ſides, an act was paſſed, on the 4th of May, 1780, by the council and houſe of repreſentatives of Maſſachuſet's Bay, for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences. It is entitled, "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;" the firſt members were named in the act; and they were never to be more than two hundred, nor leſs than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and deſign of the inſtitution of the ſaid academy, was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural hiſtory of the country; and to determine the uſes to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal diſcoveries; mathematical diſquiſitions; philoſophical inquiries and experiments; aſtronomical, meteorological, and geographical obſervations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce: and, in ſhort, to cultivate every art and ſcience, which might tend to advance the intereſt, honour, dignity, and happineſs, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

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# NEW YORK.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 300<br>Breadth 150 | between | 40 and 46 north latitude.<br>72 and 76 weſt longitude. | 24,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the South and South-weſt by Hudſon's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jerſey and Pennſylvania; on the Eaſt and North-eaſt by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-weſt by Canada.

This province, including the iſland of New York, Long Iſland, and Staten Iſland, is divided into the ten following counties:

| Counties. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| New York | NEW YORK. | 40-40 N. lat.<br>74-00 W. lon. |
| Albany | Albany | |
| Ulſter | None | |
| Ducheſs | None | |
| Orange | Orange | |
| Weſt Cheſter | Weſt Cheſter | |
| King's | None | |
| Queen's | Jamaica | |
| Suffolk | Southampton | |
| Richmond | Richmond. | |

RIVERS.]

RIVERS.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish: on this the cities of New York and Albany are situated. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall 70 feet perpendicular, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] These are Cape May on the east entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the east end of Long Island.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country, resembling that of the other British American colonies, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York-island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants are descended from the Dutch families, who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province is supposed to contain now about 200,000.

The commerce of this province does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000l.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] It is ordained, by the late constitution of New York, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever be allowed, within that state, to all mankind.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American

coaſt. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41ſt degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conqueſt in 1664; and it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's acceſſion to the throne, the right to New York became veſted in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in ſeven years, elected their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſemblies. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature (anſwering to thoſe of Great Britain), had power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal aſſent to them was firſt to be obtained.

By the conſtitution of the ſtate of New York, eſtabliſhed in 1777, the ſupreme legiſlative power was veſted into two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; the one to be called, "The Aſſembly of the State of New York," to conſiſt of ſeventy members, annually choſen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," to conſiſt of twenty-four for four years, who together are to form the legiſlature, and to meet once, at leaſt, in every year, for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power is to be veſted in a governor, who is to continue in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors, choſen by and from the ſenate. Every male inhabitant, of full age, who ſhall poſſeſs a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the ſtate for ſix months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the aſſembly; but thoſe who vote for the governor, and the members of the ſenate, are to be poſſeſſed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congreſs, the judges, &c. are to be choſen by ballot of the ſenate and aſſembly.

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# NEW JERSEY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 160 | between | 39 and 43 north lat. | 10,000 |
| Breadth | 60 | | 74 and 76 weſt long. | |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the Weſt and South-weſt, by Delaware river and Bay; on the South-eaſt and Eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound which ſeparates Staten Iſland from the continent, and Hudſon's river, on the North.

| Diviſions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| East Diviſion contains | Middleſex | Perth-Amboy and New-Brunſwick | |
| | Monmouth | None | |
| | Eſſex | Elizabeth and Newark | |
| | Somerſet | None | |
| | Bergen | Bergen | |
| Weſt Diviſion contains | Burlington | BURLINGTON | 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon. |
| | Glouceſter | Glouceſter | |
| | Salem | Salem | |
| | Cumberland | Hopewell | |
| | Cape May | None | |
| | Hunterdon | Trenton | |
| | Morris | Morris | |
| | Suſſex | None | |

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is ſaid to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the ſame with that of New York; the ſoil is various, at leaſt one-fourth part of the province is barren ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] New Jerſey is part of that vaſt tract of land, which we have obſerved was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James, duke of York; he ſold it, for a valuable conſideration, to lord Berkeley and ſir George Carteret (from which it received its preſent name, becauſe ſir George had, as the family ſtill have, eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey), and they again to others, who, in the year 1702, made a ſurrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which ſhe accepted: after which it became a royal government. By an account publiſhed in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000, but is ſuppoſed now to be 130,000. Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the ſeats of government; the governor generally reſided in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as moſt on the continent; and the harbour is ſafe, and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips. In Bergen county is a very valuable copper-mine.

By the new charter of rights eſtabliſhed by the provincial congreſs July 2, 1776, the government of New Jerſey is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The members of the legiſlative council are to be freeholders, and worth at leaſt one thouſand pounds real and perſonal eſtate; and the members of the general aſſembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for repreſentatives in council and aſſembly, and for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly, are to be annual; the governor, and lieutenant-governor, to be choſen out of and by the aſſembly and council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] According to the preſent conſtitution of this province, all perſons are allowed to worſhip God in the manner that is moſt agreeable to their own conſciences; nor is any perſon obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpoſe of building or repairing any other church or churches, for the maintenance of any miniſter or miniſtry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himſelf to perform. There is to be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious ſect in this province, in preference to another; and no proteſtant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, and has a power of conferring the ſame degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There were generally, before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, between 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who came from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it.

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# PENNSYLVANIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 300<br>Breadth 240 | between | 74 and 81 weſt longitude.<br>39 and 44 north latitude. | 15,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the Eaſt; and by Maryland, on the South and Weſt; and contains the following counties.

| Counties. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| Philadelphia | PHILADELPHIA | N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20. |
| Cheſter | Cheſter | |
| Bucks | Newtown | |
| Berks | Reading | |
| Northampton | Eaſton | |
| Lancaſter | Lancaſter | |
| York | York | |
| Cumberland | Carliſle | |

Bedford, a county weſtward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchaſed from the Indians in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and eſtabliſhed in 1771.

Beſides

Beſides the above, there are the three following

| Counties. | | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Newcaſtle, Kent and Suſſex | on the Delaware | Newcaſtle, Dover, Lewes, |

which form a diſtinct government, and are now called "the Delaware State," having a preſident, council of nine perſons, and houſe of aſſembly of twenty-one repreſentatives: the judges and other officers of ſtate, civil and military, are choſen by the preſident and general aſſembly.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, Delaware, which is navigable for veſſels of one ſort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. The Suſquehanna and Schuylkill are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ from thoſe of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremely cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are almoſt intolerably hot, but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of the Britiſh plantations, from New York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deſerves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a ſort of wine, with which they regale themſelves. It may alſo be obſerved of the timber of theſe colonies, that towards the ſouth it is not ſo good for ſhipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The farther ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily, which property, as it renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips, makes it more uſeful for ſtaves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New York by the Engliſh, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica (under the auſpices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and, after much court ſolicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation in a character no leſs reſpectable is univerſal among all civilized nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions to which the Quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed; but it was to his own wiſdom and ability that they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which placed this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in

the utmoſt latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the chief and only foundation of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the conſent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn ſubjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court conſtituted for that purpoſe. The cauſes between man and man were not to be ſubjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. His benevolence and generoſity extended alſo to the Indian nations: inſtead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchaſed of theſe people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldeſt right, was veſted in them. William Penn, in ſhort, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his ſtatue placed next to thoſe of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the ſolid baſis of equity, ſtill maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only neceſſary to mention that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thouſand acres, with one ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty ſhillings the acre; and even at ſeveral miles diſtance from that city, ſold at twenty years purchaſe.

In ſome years, more people tranſported themſelves into Pennſylvania, than into all the other ſettlements together. Upon the principal rivers ſettlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The preſent number of inhabitants are eſtimated at 320,000. The people are hardy, induſtrious, and moſt of them ſubſtantial, though but few of the landed people can be conſidered as rich; but before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more eaſy rate, as the inferior people manufactured moſt of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very conſiderable towns, ſuch as German-Town, Cheſter, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would deſerve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipſes the reſt, and deſerves our chief attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legiſlator of this colony. It is ſituated 100 miles from the ſea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schuylkill, on the ſouth, which it unites, as it were, by running in a line of two miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner: every quarter of the city forms a ſquare of eight acres, and almoſt in the centre of it is a ſquare of ten acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe, and other public buildings. The High ſtreet is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other ſtreets, which are croſſed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals, from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the wholeſomeneſs of the city. According to the original plan, every man in poſſeſſion of 1000 acres in the province, had his

his houſe either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, beſides the above mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of the houſe, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, is the firſt private building, both for magnificence and ſituation, in all Britiſh America. The barracks for the troops, the market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are ſpacious and fine; and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way ſurpriſing, when we conſider the great trade which it carried on with the Engliſh, Spaniſh, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Beſides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, proviſions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is ſo commodiouſly ſituated, the Germans, who are ſettled in the interior parts of this province, employ ſeveral hundred waggons, drawn each by four horſes, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 veſſels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennſylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000l. Thoſe exported to Great Britain and other markets, beſides timber, ſhips built for ſale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, conſiſted of grain, flour, and many ſorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500l. Since the colony's independence, the new duty upon imported goods of two and a half per cent. *ad valorem*, produced from the firſt of March to the firſt of December 1784, 132,000l. in Philadelphia, which correſponds to an importation of 3,168,000l.

There is an academy eſtabliſhed at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, bid fair to become a bright ſeminary of learning.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congreſs of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops made themſelves maſters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778, the Britiſh troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the reſidence of the congreſs.

In 1776, the repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new conſtitution of government for that colony. They determined, that the commonwealth, or ſtate of Pennſylvania, ſhould be governed hereafter by an aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the freemen of the ſame, and a preſident and council. That the ſupreme legiſlative power ſhould be veſted in a houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of the commonwealth or ſtate of Pennſylvania. That the ſupreme executive power ſhould be veſted in a preſident and council of twelve. That every freeman of twenty-one years of age, having reſided in Pennſylvania one year before the day of election for repreſentatives, and paid public taxes during that time, ſhould enjoy the right of an elector; and that the ſons of freeholders, of twenty-

one

one years of age, ſhould be entitled to vote, although they had not paid taxes. That the houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of this commonwealth ſhould conſiſt of perſons moſt noted for wiſdom and virtue, to be choſen by the freemen of every city and county of this commonwealth reſpectively. And that no perſon ſhould be elected, unleſs he had reſided in the city or county for which he ſhould be choſen two years before the election; and that no member, while he continued ſuch, ſhould hold any other office, except in the militia. That no perſon ſhould be capable of being elected a member to ſerve in the houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of this commonwealth more than four years in ſeven. That the members of the houſe of repreſentatives ſhould be choſen annually by ballot, and ſhould be ſtyled, "The general aſſembly of repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania," and ſhould have power to chooſe their ſpeaker, the treaſurer of the ſtate, and their other officers, to prepare bills and enact them into laws, to redreſs grievances, impeach ſtate criminals, and have all other powers neceſſary for the legiſlature of a free ſtate or commonwealth. That delegates to repreſent Pennſylvania in congreſs ſhould be annually choſen by ballot, in the general aſſembly of repreſentatives. That the ſupreme executive council of this ſtate ſhould conſiſt of twelve perſons, to be choſen by the freemen of Philadelphia, and the ſeveral counties of Pennſylvania. That a preſident, and vice-preſident of this council ſhould be choſen annually. That the preſident, and in his abſence the vice-preſident, and the council, five of whom are to be a quorum, ſhould have power to appoint and commiſſionate judges, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney-general, and other officers civil and military. That the preſident ſhall be commander in chief of the forces of the ſtate, but ſhall not command in perſon, except adviſed thereto by the council, and then only ſo long as they ſhall approve. That all trials ſhall be by jury; and that freedom of ſpeech, and of the preſs, ſhall not be reſtrained. That all perſons in public offices ſhall declare their belief in one God, the creator, and governor of the univerſe, the rewarder of the good, and the puniſher of the wicked; and alſo acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Teſtament to be given by divine inſpiration. A variety of other particulars were alſo contained in this plan of government; wherein it was likewiſe determined, that the freemen of this commonwealth, and their ſons, ſhould be trained and armed for its defence, under ſuch regulations, reſtrictions, and exceptions, as the general aſſembly ſhould by law direct, preſerving always to the people the right of chooſing their colonel, and all commiſſioned officers under that rank, in ſuch manner and as often as by the ſaid laws ſhould be directed. Two perſons alſo are to be choſen by ballot every year for each county and city by the freemen, to be called the "Council of Cenſors," who are to examine into the conduct of the legiſlative and executive powers.

MARYLAND.

# MARYLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 140 | between | 75 and 80 weſt longitude. | 12,000 |
| Breadth | 135 | | 37 and 40 north latitude. | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennſylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennſylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the Eaſt; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains on the Weſt.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Cheſapeak, viz. 1. The eaſtern; and 2. The weſtern diviſion.

| Diviſion. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The eaſt diviſion contains the counties of | Worceſter | Princeſs Anne |
| | Somerſet | Snow Hill |
| | Dorſet | Dorſet, or Dorcheſter |
| | Talbot | Oxford |
| | Cecil | |
| | Queen Anne's | Queen's town |
| | Kent | Cheſter |
| The Weſt diviſion contains | St. Mary's county | St. Mary |
| | Charles | Briſtol |
| | Prince George | Maſterkout |
| | Calvert | Abington |
| | Arundel | ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39. |
| | Baltimore county | Baltimore. |
| | Frederic county | |

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Saſſafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] In theſe particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, which is the ſtaple commodity of that country, hemp, India corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of Inhabitants is eſtimated at 220,700. The commerce of Maryland depends on the ſame principles with that of Virginia, and is ſo cloſely connected with it, that any ſeparation of them would rather confuſe than inſtruct. It will be conſidered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It ſeems as if all the provinces of North

North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like thoſe we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As they however were peopled by proteſtants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman catholics. This ſect, towards the cloſe of Charles the Firſt's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the Engliſh nation; and the laws in force againſt the Papiſts were executed with great ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent, in great favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of Engliſhmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was conſidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and ſpouſe to king Charles. The year following about 200 popiſh families, ſome of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which diſtinguiſh gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an eaſy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for ſome time in the ſame city; and the ſame harmony continued to ſubſiſt between the two nations, until the Indians were impoſed on by the malicious inſinuations of ſome planters in Virginia, who envied the proſperity of this popiſh colony, and inflamed the Indians againſt them by ill-grounded reports, ſuch as were ſufficient to ſtir up the reſentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reaſon to be ſo. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own ſafety on this occaſion. Though they continued their friendly intercourſe with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to uſe every other precaution for their defence againſt ſudden hoſtilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new ſpring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewiſe receiving frequent reinforcements from England of thoſe who found themſelves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorſhip of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore, was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the protector, ſubſtituted in his room. At the Reſtoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural poſſeſſor. Baltimore was reinſtated in his rights, and fully diſcovered how well he deſerved to be ſo. He eſtabliſhed a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increaſed and flouriſhed, and diſſenters of all denominations, allured by the proſpect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their poſſeſſion, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence.

At the Revolution, however, lord Baltimore was again reſtored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the intereſt. The government of this country exactly reſembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The government of Maryland is now veſted in a governor, ſenate of 15, and houſe of delegates, all which are to be choſen annually. The governor is to be elected by ballot, by the ſenate and houſe of delegates. All freemen above twenty-one years of age,

age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of ſuffrage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. All perſons appointed to any office of profit or truſt, are to ſubſcribe a declaration of their belief in the Chriſtian religion.

In 1782, a college was founded at Cheſter town in this province, under the name of *Waſhington College*, in honour of general Waſhington.

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# VIRGINIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 750<br>Breadth 140 | between | 75 and 90 weſt lon.<br>36 and 40 north lat. | 80,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the North-eaſt; by the Atlantic ocean, on the Eaſt; by Carolina, on the South; and the river Miſſiſſippi, on the Weſt.

It may be divided into four parts, viz. The North; the Middle; the South; and the Eaſtern diviſion.

| Diviſions. | Counties. | Pariſhes. |
|---|---|---|
| The north diviſion contains | 1. Northumberland | Wincomoca |
| | 2. Lancaſhire | Chriſt Church |
| | 3. Weſtmoreland | |
| | 4. Richmond | |
| | 5. Stafford | St. Paul's |
| The middle diviſion contains | 6. Eſſex | Farnham |
| | 7. Middleſex | Chriſt Church |
| | 8. Glouceſter | Abingdon |
| | 9. King and Queen co. | Stratton |
| | 10. King William co. | St. John's |
| | 11. New Kent | St. Peter's |
| | 12. Elizabeth | Elizabeth |
| | 13. Warwick | Denby |
| | 14. York | York |
| | 15. Princeſs Anne | Lynhaven |
| The ſouth diviſion contains | 16. Norfolk | Elizabeth |
| | 17. Nanſamund | Chutakuk |
| | 18. Iſle of Wight | Newport |
| | 19. Surry | Southwark |
| | 20. Prince George | Wayanoke |
| | 21. Charles | Weſtover |
| | 22. Henrico | Briſtol |
| | 23. James | James Town |
| | | WILLIAMSBURG |
| | | 37-12 N. lat. 76. 48. W. long. |
| The eaſtern diviſion between Cheſapeak bay and the ocean | 24. Acomac county | Acomac. |

CAPES,

CAPES, BAYS, AND RIVERS.] In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtrait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is the narroweſt, the waters in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmac: theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country in the world of all others of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſummer the heats are exceſſive, though not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning. To a warm day there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening, as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs, and moiſture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June the heat increaſes; and the ſummer is much like ours, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe and increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE. Towards the ſea-ſhore and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs in the ſoil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly ſun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or bruſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſun; the plains

are

are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake-root, and the ginſeng of the Chineſe, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own conſumption, but for exportation, though not in ſuch quantities as might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried there by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the ſouthern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, beef and pork were ſold here from one penny to two pence per pound; their fatteſt pullets, at ſix pence a-piece; chickens, at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fiſh and wild fowl were ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer were ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal, called the opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat; and beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a large number of teats on the uſual parts of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed ſize; then they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green, and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } This is the firſt country which the Engliſh planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other ſettlements, as has been already obſerved, from the diſcovery of Sebaſtian Cabot, who, in 1497, firſt made the northern continent of America, in the ſervice of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to ſettle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that ſir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, and ſeveral eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and ſettle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in

honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the ſixteenth century, ſeveral attempts were made for ſettling this colony, before any proved ſucceſsful. The three firſt companies who ſailed into Virginia, periſhed through hunger and diſeaſes, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to almoſt the ſame ſituation; and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had ſet ſail for England, in deſpair of living in ſuch an uncultivated country, inhabited by ſuch hoſtile and warlike ſavages. But in the mouth of Cheſapeak bay, they were met by lord Delawar, with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and every thing neceſſary for their relief and defence. At his perſuaſion they returned: by his advice, prudence, add winning behaviour, the government of the colony was ſettled within itſelf, and put on a reſpectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromiſing province of Virginia from the nobleſt motives, was compelled, by the decayed ſtate of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his ſon, as deputy; with ſir Thomas Gates, ſir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the firſt town built by the Engliſh in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flouriſh, and the true ſources of its wealth began to be diſcovered and improved. The firſt ſettlers, like thoſe of Maryland, were generally perſons of conſideration and diſtinction. It remained a ſteady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of ſir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by ſtratagem than force, reduced them. After the Reſtoration, there is nothing very intereſting in the hiſtory of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himſelf of ſome diſcontents in the colony, on account of reſtraints on trade, became very popular, and ſet every thing in confuſion. His natural death, however, reſtored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceaſed to deſtroy themſelves.

The government of this province, as ſettled in convention at Williamſburg, July 5, 1776, is veſted in a governor, ſenate of 24, and houſe of delegates, all of whom are choſen annually. But a privy council, or council of ſtate, conſiſting of eight members, is alſo to be choſen by the joint ballot of the ſenate and houſe of delegates, to aſſiſt in the adminiſtration of government.

The inhabitants of Virginia are eſtimated at 400,000; a cheerful, hoſpitable, and in general a genteel ſort of people; ſome of them are accuſed of vanity and oſtentation; which accuſation is not without ſome ground. Here are only two towns which deſerve that name; the largeſt of which, and the capital of the province, is Williamſburg, containing about ſixty houſes, and ſome ſpacious public buildings. It is about 40 miles from the mouth of James's River, and ſeven from James Town, which was formerly the capital, and which contains many taverns and public houſes, for the entertainment of mariners.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is alſo included that of Maryland. Theſe provinces were ſuppoſed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000l. into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hogſhead, makes the number of hogſheads amount to 96,000. Of theſe, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogſheads were conſumed

conſumed at home, the duty on which, at 26l. 1s. per hogſhead, came to 351,675l. the remaining 82,500 hogſheads, were exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this ſingle branch employed 330 ſail of ſhips, and 7900 ſeamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very ſinews of our national ſtrength, were powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of theſe colonies, of which naval ſtores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the moſt conſiderable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000l. The exports of Great Britain, the ſame as to our other colonies, at a like average, came to 865,000l.

Here is a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of 2000l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound, on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or viſitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

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# NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 700 | between | 76 and 91 weſt longitude. | 110,000 |
| Breadth 380 | | 30 and 37 north latitude. | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the Eaſt; by the river St. John, which ſeparates Georgia from Florida, on the South; and by the Miſſiſippi, on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Counties. | Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| North Carolina, contains the counties of | Albemarle — Bath, and Clarendon in part | Edenton<br>Wilmington |
| The middle diviſion, or South Carolina, contains the counties of | Clarendon in part<br>Craven<br>Berkley<br>Colleton<br>Granville | St. James<br>Chriſt-Church<br>CHARLES-TOWN, W. lon. 79-12. N. lat. 32-45.<br>Port-Royal. |
| The South Diviſion contains only — | Georgia —— | SAVANNAH, N. lat. 31-55. W. long. 80-20.<br>Frederica<br>Puriſburgh. |

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamtico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George River; and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida: all which rivers riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and running eaſt, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaſous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble ſtreams which fall into the Miſſiſſippi, or the gulf of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only ſea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic Ocean; which is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle River, and Pamtico. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The moſt remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the ſouth of it, and Cape Carteret ſtill farther ſouth.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any conſiderable difference between the climate of theſe countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The ſummers, indeed, are of a more intenſe heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and ſhorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to ſuch violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] In this reſpect, too, there is a conſiderable coincidence between theſe countries and Virginia; the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia hath not ſo good a ſoil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe, the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts moſtly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance. Thoſe grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark ſand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe any manure. The pine barren is the worſt of all; this is an almoſt perfectly white ſand; yet it bears the pine-tree, and ſome other uſeful plants, naturally yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peaſe; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even anſwers for rice. But what is moſt fortuuate for this province is, that this worſt part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, ſwampy grounds bear their great ſtaple, rice. The country near the

the ſea is much the worſt, in many parts little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the ſea, not a hill, not a rock, nor ſcarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heat much more temperate than in the flat ſandy coaſt.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, ſilk, wine, and oil, might be produced in theſe colonies: of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increaſe.

From what we have obſerved of theſe valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peaſe, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms; ſarſaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, reſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds, and another, which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſide theſe that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are, the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurpriſes an European more at firſt ſight than the ſize of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks when hallowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place; and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a ſtill greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have 1000 or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſts; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows; theſe are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods. It is ſurpriſing that the cattle ſhould have increaſed ſo quickly ſince their being firſt imported from Europe, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, conſtantly ranging the woods and foreſts. We have already obſerved that theſe animals are leſs ravenous than the beaſts of

Africa and Aſia; they very ſeldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing ſucceſsful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was deſigned to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, the diſputes between the church of Englandmen and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000l. for both the property and juriſdiction; and the conſtitution of this colony, in thoſe reſpects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare, which continued in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs, too, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being reſtored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, theſe provinces began to breathe; and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000l. from the government, was given to provide in neceſſaries ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increaſed in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſenſions of all kinds ſprung up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The method of ſettling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of Britiſh America, was to pitch upon a void ſpace of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of 20l. for 1000 acres, and one ſhilling quit-rent for

for every 100 acres; or otherwiſe, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe-money. The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as by accident or misfortune are rendered incapable of providing for themſelves.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, of South Carolina, which for ſize, beauty, and trade, may be conſidered as one of the firſt in Britiſh America. It is admirably ſituated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than 200 tuns burthen, loaded, from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by nature and art; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built; ſome of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handſome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 600 houſes, and was the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; and before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpired to make this by much the livelieſt, the loveliеſt, and politeſt place, as it is one of the richeſt too, in all America. It ought alſo to be obſerved, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life; thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

North and South-Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt againſt Britain; and in 1780, Charles Town being beſieged by the king's troops, ſurrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms priſoners, on the 12th of May in that year, after the ſiege had continued ſeven weeks.

As South Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 40 ſhips, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000l. The exports of North-Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports at 18,000l. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; the exports amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000l.

The trade between Carolina and the Weſt Indies was the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flouriſhing condition; and they formerly carried Engliſh goods on pack-horſes 500 miles into the country weſt of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the Rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels about 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighter-

age. Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but little more than a trifling village; they were lately projecting a town farther ſouth, which would be more centrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiouſly ſituated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the ſecond town, called Auguſta, which ſtands in a country of the greateſt fertility, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you ſee the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea; and on the other hand, you ſee the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitfield (who uſed to croſs the Atlantic every other year) founded an orphan-houſe, which is now converted to a very different uſe, into a college for the education of young men deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry. By a late eſtimate of their population, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina is 200,000; in South Carolina 170,000; and in Georgia about 25,000.

In October, 1779, the town of Savannah being in poſſeſſion of the king's troops, was beſieged by 8000 of the American and French troops in conjunction; but they were both bravely repulſed by the king's troops, with a great ſlaughter of the French and Americans. But Savannah, as well as Charles Town, were afterwards evacuated by the king's troops, and reſtored to the Americans.

The government of North Carolina is now veſted in a governor, ſenate, and houſe of commons, all elected annually; the executive power is a governor and ſeven counſellors; of South Carolina, in a governor, ſenate of 23, and a houſe of repreſentatives of 202 members: and that of Georgia in a governor, executive council of 12, and houſe of aſſembly of 72 repreſentatives.

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# WEST INDIES.

WE have already obſerved, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of iſlands, which we call the Weſt Indies, and which, ſuch as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and ſeaſons of theſe iſlands differ widely from what we can form any idea of, by what we perceive at home, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them in general, as well as ſome other particulars that are peculiar to the Weſt-Indies.

The climate in all our Weſt India iſlands is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and that the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to

to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable Providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield them from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies (and we may add in the Eaſt Indies) are by no means ſo moderate as with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time, all the low country is under water*. Hence it is the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon: but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and ſcorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when, in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniencies of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy.—Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes; the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance, which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

* See Waſer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, obſerve theſe ſigns. That day you will ſee the ſky very turbulent; you will obſerve the ſun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them. In the cleſts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a great wind. At night the ſtars ſeem much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the north-weſt ſky has a black and menacing look; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf now forſakes its uſual ſteady eaſterly ſtream, and ſhifts about to the weſt; from whence it ſometimes blows with intermiſſions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herſelf is ſurrounded with a great bur, and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame appearance. Theſe are ſigns which the Indians of theſe iſlands taught our planters, by which they can prognoſticate the approach of an hurricane.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; the commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar-cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is conſumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and other parts; beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be diſtilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have ſeen, and by others which we may eaſily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the Weſt-Indies are very great, and the profits at the firſt view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury; at all times he muſt keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and even overſee himſelf occaſionally. But at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a conſtant

ſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fiery furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider when the ſugars are in the caſk, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Theſe conſiderations might make one believe, that it could never anſwer to engage in this buſineſs; but, notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as the Weſt Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons generally provides againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation; one to about 30 negroes, and at the rate of about 40l. Such plantations too have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the neat produce of the beſt years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes upon their firſt arrival, is from 30 to 36l. women and grown boys 50s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring above 40l. upon an average one with another; and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man expert in buſineſs, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

To particulariſe the commodities proper for the Weſt India market, would be to enumerate all the neceſſaries, conveniencies, and luxuries of life: for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, ſpices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell; but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or leſs as a venture, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our Weſt Indies at leaſt 230,000 negro ſlaves; and, upon the higheſt calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 ſouls. This diſproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more viſible every day, ſome writers have endeavoured to account for, by alleging, that the enterpriſing ſpirit which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent cauſes, had produced in the laſt century, has decayed very much. That the diſpoſition of the Weſt Indians themſelves, who for cheapneſs chooſe to do every thing by negroes which can poſſibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the ſmall number of whites of the lower ſtations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in conſtant terror of inſurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial ſervants, who are infinitely the moſt dangerous of the ſlaves, and in caſe of any inſurrection, they have it more in their power to ſtrike a ſudden and fatal blow: and the cruelty with which the negroes are often treated, gives the white inhabitants too much reaſon for their apprehenſions, that the negroes may endeavour to revenge themſelves upon their maſters.

The firſt obſervation that has been mentioned, in order to account for the preſent diſproportion between the freemen and the negroes in the Weſt-Indies, we think it not well founded; that enterpriſing ſpirit which firſt led Britons out to diſcovery and colonization, ſtill animates in a very conſiderable degree the people of this nation; but the field has been lately more ample and enlarged, and emigrants have had greater ſcope whereon to range. Beſides the vaſt continent of North America, which takes in ſuch a variety of climates, and diſcovers ſuch a richneſs of ſoil; the Eaſt Indies, an inexhauſtible mine of riches, have in ſome degree drawn the attention of mankind from that of the Weſt. Countries, as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for ſomething extraordinary, and have their day. Many of the beſt families of this nation are ambitious of procuring places for their ſons in the Eaſt Indies. Here is an ample field for all adventurous ſpirits, who, diſdaining an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming uſeful to themſelves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immenſe regions of this Eaſtern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent diſpoſition, but with leſs conduct and inferior abilities, ſet out with the moſt ſanguine hopes. Theſe are your fiery, reſtleſs tempers, willing to undertake the ſevereſt labour, provided it promiſes but a ſhort continuance, who love riſk and hazard, whoſe ſchemes are always vaſt, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into Windward and Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena or New Spain and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The firſt that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between

tween 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains, which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome water, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between theſe ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of this iſland is, in moſt places, exceſſively hot, and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cool ſea-breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs, and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue ſometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible endemial diſtempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces alſo ginger, and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica Pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the manchineel, whoſe fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worſt poiſons in nature; the mahogany, in ſuch uſe with our cabinet-makers, and of the moſt valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large ſize and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma affording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and medicine; the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive bark, uſeful to tanners; the fuſtic and red wood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is ſtill ſo. No ſort of European grain grows here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has

been

been already obſerved, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, allicada, pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral kinds of berries, alſo garden ſtuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their fleſh is exceedingly ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, mettleſome, and hardy, and when well made generally ſell for 30 or 40l. ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, china, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parroquets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and gallewaſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

This iſland was originally part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion.—Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; though they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in thoſe parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000 and that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at preſent that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Beſides theſe, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a ſort of colony among the Blue Mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in ſome reſpects uſeful to the inhabitants of the iſland, particularly in ſending back runaway ſlaves.

Indigo

Indigo was once very much cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the iſland to ſo great a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number I do not imagine even the whole iſland exceeds at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though perhaps they had not thoſe vaſt fortunes which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, ariſes from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain: as that they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, which are enabled to underſell them by the lowneſs of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, and ſome remedies applied; others remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband, have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain and the Spaniſh nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right, and at the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; becauſe we thought, and very juſtly, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it, by their guarda coſtas, which cruiſe in theſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes as are found in this trade. In this manner did the Britiſh court argue, till the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to ſend Engliſh cruiſers to the American coaſt, effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America loudly complained, as it put a ſtop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit ſo largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with as inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, ſo as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine-tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out

out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people in them; the place appearing for ſome time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts, mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a ſecond time, ten years after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants, therefore, reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately become the capital of the iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of one thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, and in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton, ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spaniſh town, which, though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

On the 3d of October 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea-port-town of Savannah-la-Mer, in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of lives were loſt. Much damage was alſo done, and many lives loſt, in other parts of the iſland.

The whole product of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads. Firſt, ſugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thouſand three hundred and fifteen hogſheads, ſome vaſtly great, even to a tun weight, which cannnot be worth leſs in England than 424,725l. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, moſaſſes, in which they made a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand ſtaple the ſugar-cane. According to the late teſtimony of a reſpectable planter, in Jamaica, that iſland hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of ſugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable; but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma;

Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carried on a vaſt and profitable trade in Negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh Main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhew ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner, inſtantly. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The Negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſsly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their diſhabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-Devil, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſend them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland, which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl, and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed ſome gentlemen well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The miſery and hardſhips of the Negroes are truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt Indies, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. It is ſaid, that they are ſtubborn and untractable, for the moſt part, and that they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be cruſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as ſome of their maſters or overſeers do at preſent, though ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves

the dregs of this nation, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the Negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where in general theſe poor wretches are better uſed, theſe is a leſs waſte of Negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it ſeems clear, from the whole courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations which have behaved with the greateſt humanity to their ſlaves, were always beſt ſerved, and ran the leaſt hazard from their rebellions.—The ſlaves, on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures, but they ſoon become roguiſh enough; and when they come to be whipped excuſe their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every Negroe returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe, to many of them, be quite intolerable.—They look on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it; they are quite tranſported to think their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their native ſhores, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance. When a Negroe is about to expire, his fellow-ſlaves kiſs him, and wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, is ſituated in 59 degrees weſt long. and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of Negroes and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery. A practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy.—The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented: and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned

nowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of 50 years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar-colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. The capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college, founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 degrees weſt long. and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 Negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt of the Engliſh harbours, being the beſt and ſafeſt as a dock-yard, and an eſtabliſhment for the royal navy; but St. John's is the port of greateſt trade; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward Iſlands. Antigua is ſuppoſed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles, in circumference, and are ſaid each to contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 ſlaves. The ſoil in theſe four iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but notwithſtanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored at the peace.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 19 deg. N. lat. 60 miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica.—The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 16 deg. N. lat. and in 62 W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth: it got its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee han ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always oppoſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in expreſs terms to the Engliſh; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own ſettlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its ſituation between the principal French iſlands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the moſt capacious in the Weſt Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itſelf, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in 13 deg. N. lat. and 61 deg. W. lon. 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, 30 miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are alſo fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. The Caribbeans were treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is ſituated in 12 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. weſt lon. about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil of this iſland is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war but one, when Granada was attacked

attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763.—But in July, 1779, the French again made themſelves maſters of this iſland, though it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt India ſugar iſlands, lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſeveral others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other, in this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt long. ſeparated from Labrador or New Britain by the Straits of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow or ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued, and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea-coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect) will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to increaſe the national ſtock 300,000l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod both on the Great Bank, and the leſſer ones, which lie on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceiveable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, New Scotland, New England, and the Iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts, from which we may obſerve, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or ſo barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores of the iſland; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the gulf of St.

Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than 50 ſoldiers to enforce the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and weſt coaſt of the Iſland. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John; but there do not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This iſland, ſeated between Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The ſoil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louiſburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where ſix or ſeven fathoms water.

The French began a ſettlement in this iſland in 1714, which they continued to increaſe, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, diſpoſſeſſed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little aſſiſtance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, ceded to the French, who ſpared no expence to fortify and ſtrengthen it. Notwithſtanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the Britiſh troops under general Amherſt and admiral Boſcawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and ſtores: and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, ſince which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louiſburgh diſmantled.

ST. JOHN's.] Situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, and has many fine rivers; and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to 4000, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and, to the diſgrace of the French governor, there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This iſland was ſo well improved by the French, that it was ſtyled the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] Theſe received their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Iſlands, from ſir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated, at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and in 65 degrees weſt lon. Their diſtance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Maderias about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but ſmall, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of acceſs, being, as Waller the poet, who reſided ſome time there, expreſſes it, 'walled with rocks.' The air of theſe iſlands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always eſteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richneſs of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the ſoil of theſe iſlands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only

only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs, as the cedar of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended with ſeven or eight forts, and ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 81 degrees weſt lon. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina: they are, however, almoſt uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The Engliſh, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage, and the Iſle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Auguſtine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt India iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the 52d deg. of ſouth lat. where the reader, by looking into the Map, will perceive the Falkland Iſlands ſituated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America. Falkland Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by ſir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. They have occaſioned ſome conteſt between Spain and Great Britain, but being of very little worth, ſeem to have been ſilently abandoned by the latter, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spaniſh court.

# SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

## EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 500 | between | 80 and 91 weſt longitude. |
| Breadth 440 | | 25 and 32 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, is bounded by Georgia on the North; by the Miſſiſſippi on the Weſt; by the Gulf of Mexico on the South; and by the Bahama Straits on the Eaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſſippi, which is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for, including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman ſays ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

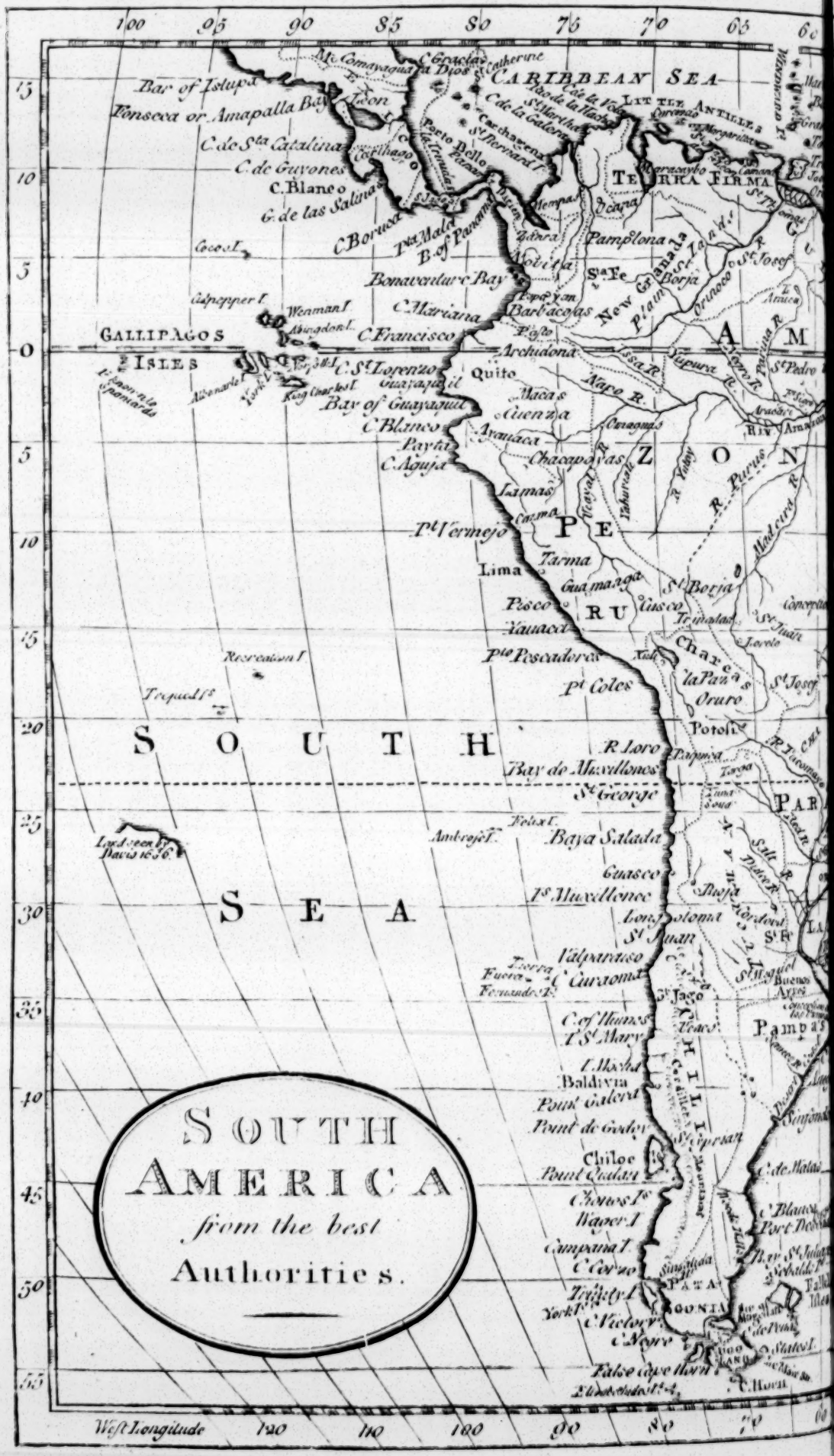
The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula.

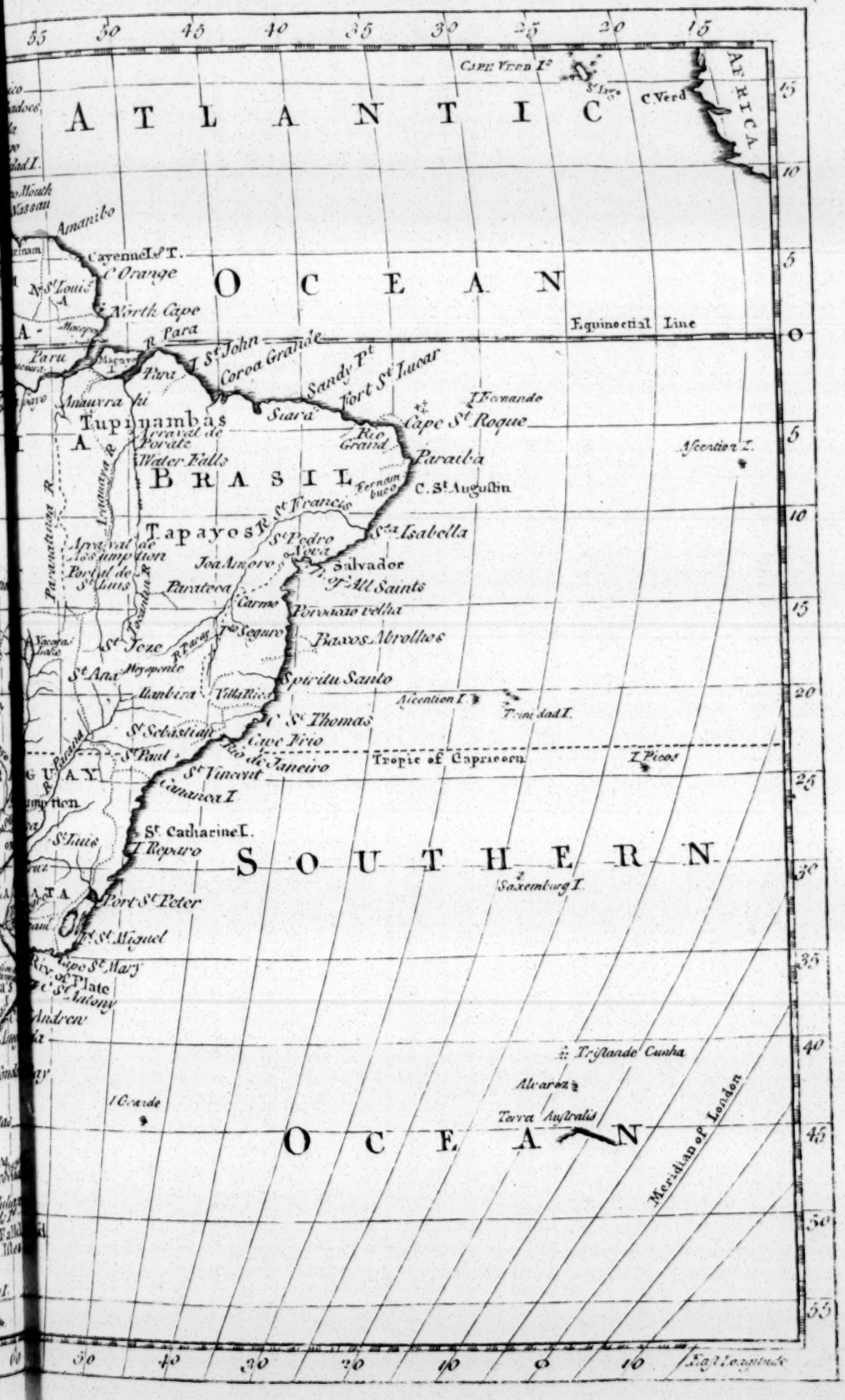
AIR AND CLIMATE.] Very various accounts have been given of theſe particulars in this country; but that the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in theſe reſpects, far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours the Mexicans.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Eaſt Florida, near the ſea, and 40 miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large ſize, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inward country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions.

This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergriſe, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore: pearls are alſo found on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but infe-

rior


SOUTH
AMERICA
from the best
Authorities.
CARIBBEAN SEA
TERRA FIRMA
GALLIPAGOS ISLES
SOUTH SEA
PERU
ZONIA
AMA
PARAGUA
PATAGONIA
Quito
Lima
Pampas
Archidona
Pamplona
Bonaventure Bay
Bay of Guayaquil
Bay de Mazellones
Baldivia
Chiloe
Cape Horn
West Longitude


ATLANTIC
OCEAN
SOUTHERN
OCEAN
AFRICA
BRASIL
Cape Verd Is
C. Verd
Equinoctial Line
Amanibo
Cayenne I. & T.
C. Orange
North Cape
R. Para
Para
I. St. John
Coroa Grande
Sandy Pt
Port St. Iuear
I. Fernando
Tupinambas
Arraial de Porate
Water Falls
Siara
Cape St. Roque
Rio Grand
Paraiba
Fernambuco
C. St. Augustin
Ascention I.
St. Francis R.
Tapayos R.
St. Pedro
Villa
Sta. Isabella
Arraial de Assumption
Portal de St. Luis
Joa Amoro
Salvador
or All Saints
Paraguassu R.
Paraguassu
Carmo
Porto seguro
Rio Seguro
Rio Doce
Bayos Abrolhos
Spiritu Santo
Villa Rica
Ascention I.
Trinidad I.
St. Thomas
Cape Frio
Rio de Janeiro
Tropic of Capricorn
I. Picos
St. Vincent
Gamboa I.
St. Catharine I.
I. Repuro
Saxemburg I.
Port St. Peter
Port St. Miguel
Cape St. Mary
R. of Plate
St. Antony
Tristande Cunha
Alvarez
I. Grande
Terra Australis
Meridian of London
Equinoctial
Longitude

rior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good-ſaddle horſe, in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. long. 87-20, which is ſituated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the Gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. long. 81-12. runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, or low tides, have eight feet water.

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# NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 2000 | between | 94 and 126 weſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 1600 | | 23 and 43 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louiſiana, on the Eaſt; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the South; and by the ſame ocean on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| North-eaſt diviſion | New Mexico Proper | SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36. |
| South-eaſt diviſion | Apacheira — | St. Antonio. |
| South diviſion | Sonora — — | Tuape. |
| Weſt diviſion | California, a peninſula | St. Juan. |

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Theſe countries lying for the moſt part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a ſoil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, they experience great heats in the ſummer, particularly towards the ſea coaſt; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural hiſtory of theſe countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themſelves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate.

Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at leaſt ſtill preſerve their independence; they are jealous of diſcovering the natural advantages of theſe countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe to form ſettlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleaſant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, interſected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with varied kinds of trees, ſome producing excellent fruit. With reſpect to the value of the gold mines in thoſe countries, nothing poſitive can be aſſerted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, ſettling on the roſe leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, without its whiteneſs. There is alſo another very ſingular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm and clear as cryſtal, which, conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh found on its coaſts, might render it an invaluable acquiſition to any induſtrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, AND COMMERCE. } The Spaniſh ſettlements here are comparatively weak; though they are increaſing every day in proportion as new mines are diſcovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spaniſh miſſionaries have in many places brought over to Chriſtianity, to a civilized life, and to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was diſcovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator, ſir Francis Drake, took poſſeſſion of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably ſituated for trade, and on its coaſt has a pearl fiſhery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from thoſe of Old Mexico.

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# OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 2000 | between | 83 and 110 weſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 600 | | 8 and 30 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the gulf of Mexico, on the North-eaſt; by Terra Firma, on the South-eaſt; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-weſt; containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences

| Audiences. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| 1. Galicia or Guadalajarra —— | Guadalajarra. |
| 2. Mexico Proper —— | Mexico, W. lon. 100. N. lat. 19-54.<br>Acapulco.<br>Vera Cruz. |
| 3. Guatimala —— — | Guatimala*. |

Bays.] On the north ſea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean or South Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

Capes.] Theſe are Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Cornducedo, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito Sancto, Cape Corientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Prucreos, and Cape Mala, in the South Sea.

Winds.] In the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropics. Near the coaſt, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. Monſoons, and ſea and land breezes, as in Aſia.

Soil and climate.] Mexico, lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot, and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain, were the induſtry of the inhabitants to correſpond with their natural advantages.

Produce.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, ſo that here are more ſugar mills than in any other part of Spaniſh America. But what is conſidered as the chief glory of this country, and what firſt induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of gold and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one reſpect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends on the ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſeveral heterogeneous ſub-

* This city was ſwallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June 1773, when eight thouſand families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala is built at ſome diſtance, and is well inhabited.

ſtances,

ſtances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which means it is diſengaged from the earth, and other ſoft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances, has the ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction for ſilver than the other ſubſtances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſeparated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by ſtraining and evaporation, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. Of the gold and ſilver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid. Thoſe who have enquired moſt into this ſubject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver. The other articles next in importance to gold and ſilver, are the cochineal and cocoa. After much diſpute concerning the nature of the former, it ſeems at laſt agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which conſiſts in dying all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no leſs than nine hundred thouſand pounds weight of this commodity, to anſwer the purpoſes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next conſiderable article in the natural hiſtory and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling ſize, which bears a pod about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh commerce in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the internal conſumption, as well as external call for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoas is ſaid to produce to the owner twenty thouſand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutritious, and ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilk, but not ſo much as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightneſs is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT, AND MANNERS. We ſhall place theſe heads under one point of view, becauſe the reader will ſoon be ſenſible they are very nearly connected. We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conqueſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a ſtill more conſiderable portion of pride; for they conſider themſelves as entitled to every high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which make the praiſe-worthy part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue;

intrigue; and their ladies of conſequence are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miſerable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure, as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power which his Catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For, as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. It is impoſſible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to eccleſiaſtics, in any part of the world. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church ſhould enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more ſurpriſing that it has not a half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulf of Mexico, or North-Sea; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea, and with South-America, by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargoe conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometimes in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena,

and

and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America, and the Eaſt Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrives here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips, (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewiſe carries goods), conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the Eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargoe of the Flota, ſo the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargoe of the galleon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco; the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world: for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated. The Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here are wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which are every year ſent into Europe. The city itſelf breathes the air of the higheſt magnificence, and according to the beſt accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

# SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

## TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 1400<br>Breadth 700 | between | 60 and 82 west longitude.<br>the equator, and 12 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic Ocean), on the North; by the same sea and Surinam, on the East; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the West.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The north division contains the provinces of | 1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien | Porto Bello<br>PANAMA, W. lon. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47. |
| | 2. Carthagena | Carthagena |
| | 3. St. Martha | St. Martha |
| | 4. Rio de la Hacha | Rio de la Hacha |
| | 5. Venezuela | Venezuela |
| | 6. Comana | Comana |
| | 7. New Andalusia, or Paria | St. Thomas |
| The south division contains the provinces of | 1. New Granada | Santa Fé de Bagota |
| | 2. Popayan | Popayan. |

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the isthmus or neck of land, is only 60 miles over.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's, in the South Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Triesto, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual at Carthagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually

nually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and incapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtle poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that if a perſon only ſleeps under it, he finds his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts from inſtinct, always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines have been ſince opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts; it is therefore unneceſſary to repeat them hereafter. Among thoſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the ſloth, or, as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time, ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes; but where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.]

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general deſcription of the Americans, there is another ſpecies, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what principally diſtinguiſhes them is their large, weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moon-light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe of Mexico. To what we have obſerved, with regard to this country, it is only neceſſary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variouſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt diſtinction, ariſing from the intermarriage of the whites with the Negroes, is that of the Mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with theſe and the whites, ariſe the Quarterones, who, though ſtill near the former, are diſgraced with a tint of Negro blood. But the produce of theſe and the whites are the Quinterones, who, which is very remarkable, are not to be diſtinguiſhed from the real Spaniards, but by being of a ſtill fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the Mulattoes and the Negroes; and beſides theſe, there are a thouſand others, hardly diſtinguiſhable by the natives themſelves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America; and each containing ſeveral thouſand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negro ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and have arrived at wonderful dexterity at this occupation. They are ſometimes however devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

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# PERU.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1800 | between | the equator and 25 ſouth latitude. |
| Breadth | 500 | | 60 and 81 weſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains, or Cordeleiras des Anges, Eaſt; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific Ocean, Weſt.

Diviſions.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The north diviſion | Quito — | Quito<br>Payta |
| The middle diviſion | Lima, or Los Reyes | Lima, 76-49 W. lon. 12-11. S. lat.<br>Cuſco, and Callao. |
| The ſouth diviſion | Los Charcos — | Potoſi<br>Porco. |

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao the port-town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whoſe waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granada or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, riſe in the Andes. Many other rivers riſe alſo in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight deg. S. lat.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are ſome waters, which in their courſe, turn into ſtone; and here are fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſe.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one ſide the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not ſo ſtifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The ſky too, which is generally cloudy, ſhields them from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. Along the ſea-coaſt, Peru is generally a dry barren ſand, except by the banks of rivers, when it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are conſtantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of Potoſi, when the ſilver there was found at the eaſieſt expence, (for now having gone ſo deep, it is not ſo eaſily brought up) contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no leſs remarkable for its fineneſs than for the animals on which it grows; theſe they call lamas and vicunnas. The lama has a ſmall head, in ſome meaſure reſembling that of a horſe and ſheep at the ſame time. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The fleſh of the lama is agreeable and ſalutary, and the animal is not only uſeful in affording wool and food, but alſo as a beaſt of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the ſteepeſt mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 pounds. It feeds very ſparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is ſmaller and ſwifter than the lama, and produces wool ſtill finer in quality. In the vicunna too is found the bezoar ſtones, regarded as a ſpecific againſt poiſons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of

Jeſuits

Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous part of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The beſt bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the ſize of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit reſembling the almond. But it is only the bark which has thoſe excellent qualities that render it ſo uſeful in intermitting fevers, and other diſorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually, to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewiſe the only part of Spaniſh America which produces quickſilver; an article of immenſe value, conſidering the various purpoſes to which it is applied, and eſpecially the puriſication of gold and ſilver. The principal mine of this ſingular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitiſh maſs reſembling brick ill burned. This ſubſtance is volatiliſed by fire, and received in ſteam by a combination of glaſs veſſels, where it condenſes by means of a little water at the bottom of each veſſel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join theſe articles here becauſe of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we ſhall deſcribe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spaniſh empire: its ſituation in the middle of a ſpacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the moſt proper for a city, which he expected would preſerve his memory. It is ſo well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like thoſe of London, command a ſtream, each for his own uſe. There are many very magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houſes in general are built of ſlight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering ſtone houſes unneceſſary; and beſides it is found, that theſe are more apt to ſuffer by ſhocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the ſea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a ſixth part. One remarkable fact is ſufficient to demonſtrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, amounting to ſeventeen millions ſterling. All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could juſtify theſe accounts, is the immenſe richneſs and extenſive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru ſtand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the Eaſt Indies, land at the ſame harbour, and the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon find an outlet for them, ſince by one channel or other they have a communication with almoſt every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the ſituation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not ſufficient to

compenſate for one diſaſter, which always threatens, and has ſometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port-town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of three thouſand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf and was ſaved. Cuſco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline. But it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo, both here and in Quito, a particular taſte for painting; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is, like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. } It would be in vain to pretend ſaying any thing deciſive with regard to the number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themſelves are remarkably ſilent on this head. It has been gueſſed by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is agreed on by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The creoles, and all the other deſcendants of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true-born Caſtilian could not think of but with deteſtation. This, no doubt, in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents; and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiences or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

CHILI.

# CHILI.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1200 | between | 25 and 45 south latitude. |
| Breadth | 500 | | 65 and 85 west longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, on the East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the West.

| Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| On the west side of the Andes | Chili Proper | St. Jago, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34. |
| | | Baldivia. |
| | | Imperial. |
| On the east side of the Andes. | Cuyo, or Cutio | St. John de Frontiera. |

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

BAYS, SEAS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili is that of the Pacific Ocean, on the west.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valparisо, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of Nature. For here not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru; and they have gold almost in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavoured condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, Negroes, and Mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been some formidable insurrections against the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spanish court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, whi[illegible]

is raiſed in no other part of the South Seas; hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; and they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

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# PARAGUA, or LA PLATA.

## Situation and Extent.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1500 | between | 12 and 37 ſouth latitude. |
| Breadth | 1000 | | 50 and 75 weſt longitude. |

Boundaries.] Bounded by Amazonia, on the North; by Brazil, Eaſt; by Patagonia, on the South; and by Peru and Chili, Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Eaſt diviſion contains | Paraguay | Aſſumption |
| | Parana | St. Anne |
| | Guaira | Civadad Real |
| | Uragua | Los Reyes |
| South diviſion | Tucuman | St. Jago |
| | Rio de la Plata | Buenos Ayres, W lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35. |

Bays and lakes.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which is 100 miles long.

Rivers.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, which, united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks: and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime, that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

Air, soil, and produce.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the leaſt hill for ſeveral hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the uſual price for a beaſt, choſen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this

country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkably ſweet, and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE. } The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river la Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Braſil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar, and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth, which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the Goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontrolled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licence from the fathers. They, on their part ageeed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle; and they united them into a little townſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure, which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power, at the ſame time that it has brought on ſo much envy and jealouſy, to their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations; fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government, who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion, and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnify-

ing the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the Fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with preciſion, all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of ſo many people. The Jeſuits left nothing undone, that could conduce to their remaining in this ſubjection, or that could tend to increaſe their number to the degrees requiſite for a well-ordered and potent ſociety; and it is ſaid that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were ſubject to the Jeſuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint: That the Indians were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exerciſed manufactures; ſome even aſpired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity; accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates who are always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and to ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdiction, to kiſs the hem of their garments, as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeemed to evince, that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. And we were informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were ſent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jeſuits were ſent out of America, by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

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## SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The iſland of Cuba is ſituated betwen 19 and 23 degrees north lat. and betwen 74 and 87 degrees weſt lon. 100 miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breath. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt; but the land near the ſea is in general level and flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical. This noble iſland is ſuppoſed to have the beſt ſoil for ſo large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the Weſt-Indies, particularly ginger, long-pepper, and other ſpices, caſſia fiſtula,

fiſtula, maſtic, and aloes. It alſo produces tobacco and ſugar; but from the want of hands, and the lazineſs of the Spaniards, not in ſuch quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the ſame cauſe that this large iſland does not produce, including all it commodities, ſo much for exportation as our ſmall iſland of Antigua.

The courſe of the rivers is too ſhort to be of any conſequence; but there are ſeveral good harbours in the iſland, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, ſtrongly ſituated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perſeverance of the Engliſh troops in the year 1762, but reſtored in the ſubſequent treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is likewiſe Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town thirty miles eaſt of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This iſland was at firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt conſiderable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original poſſeſſors, and ſtill continue to have a ſhare in it, Hiſpaniola is commonly regarded as a Spaniſh iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt degrees north lat. and the 67th and 74th of weſt lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt a million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks, they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which are in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Meſtizos and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape St. François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above mentioned places, are not leſs in value than 1,200,000l. They likewiſe carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spaniſh dollars.

PORTO RICO ] Situated between 64 and 67 degrees weſt lon. and in 18 degrees north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the iſland is unhealthful in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here; but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north ſide of the main iſland, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief iſland by a cauſey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns, becauſe it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the king of Spain's ſubjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, are extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 degrees weſt lon. and in 10 degrees north lat. lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main; from which it is ſeparated by the ſtreights of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 64 degrees weſt lon. and 11-30 north lat. ſeparated from the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait of 24 miles, is about forty miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We ſhall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor, and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 degrees weſt lon. and 33 ſouth lat. 300 miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited; but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at, and water; and here they are in no danger of being diſcovered, unleſs when, as is generally the caſe, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Braſil. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems, one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotſman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in

goats

goats ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect and majeſtic beards diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is ſaid to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of theſe papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigeſted for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but thoſe hints, which might give riſe to his own celebrated performance.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago iſles, ſituated 400 miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

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# PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

## CONTAINING BRASIL.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 2500 | between | the equator and 35 ſouth latitude. |
| Breadth | 700 | | 35 and 60 weſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the ſame ocean on the Eaſt; by the mouth of the river Plata South; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons on the Weſt.

On the coaſt are three ſmall iſlands, where ſhips touch for proviſions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.] The Atlantic Ocean waſhes the coaſt of Braſil on the north-eaſt and eaſt, upwards of 3000 miles, forming ſeveral fine bays and harbours: as the harbours of Panambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north ſhore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Auguſtine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Braſil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS.] The name of Braſil was given to this country, becauſe it was obſerved to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Braſil, which lies almoſt under the equator, the climate is hot, boiſterous, and unwholeſome, ſubject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months

months of March and September, when they have ſuch deluges of rain, with ſtorms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the ſouthward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more ſerene and wholeſome air, refreſhed with the ſoft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coaſt is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleaſant, it being interſperſed with meadows and woods; but on the weſt, far within land, are mountains from whence iſſue many noble ſtreams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running acroſs the country from eaſt to weſt till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the ſugar-mills belonging to the Portugueſe.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the ſoil is extremely fruitful, producing ſugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muſcovado, as we call our unrefined ſugar. Alſo tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balſam of Copaibo, Braſil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dying, but not the red of the beſt kind; it has likewiſe ſome place in medicine, as a ſtomachic and reſtringent.

The animals here are the ſame as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the ſoil was found very ſufficient for ſubſiſting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were diſcovered; theſe, with the ſugar plantations, occupy ſo many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in conſequence, Braſil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in America, by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are deſcribed as a people, who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhew, ſtate, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are ſumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called Serpentines, which are borne on the Negroes ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind o teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down or ſit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen, he pulls the curtains aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them, make uſe of a ſtrong well-made ſtaff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron; this they ſtick faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of theſe, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of faſhion, or any lady, will paſs the ſtreets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the ſame excluſive plan on which the ſeveral nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly reſembles the

Spaniſh method, in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience of the ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal, and compoſe three flotas, bound to as many ports in Braſil; namely, to Fernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the ſouthern extremity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

In this laſt is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and ſometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, and a lake, forming a creſcent, inveſting it almoſt wholly ſo as nearly to join the ſea, on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond compariſon, the moſt gay and opulent city in all Braſil.

The trade of Braſil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 Negroes, annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Braſil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the ſugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ſhips carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they conſiſt of woollen goods of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany: the ſilks of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England; as well as ſalt-fiſh, beef, flour, and cheeſe. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal. England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and what they want for the uſe of the Braſils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Braſil is a very wealthy and flouriſhing ſettlement. Their export of ſugar, within 40 years is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in the Britiſh American colonies. The northern and ſouthern parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle: theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than 20,000 are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe had been long in poſſeſſion of Braſil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds, which have ſince made it ſo conſiderable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of 100 ſail of large ſhips, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America,

rica, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſio, in 1498, but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which inſtantly decides the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebaſtian, the king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their liberty, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch, ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and being not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independency by a ſucceſsful defenſive war; and fluſhed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Braſil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopt by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Braſil; but their Weſt India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and haraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country, which was accepted; and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Braſil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

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# FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions of the French on the continent of America are at preſent inconſiderable. They were maſters of Canada and Louiſiana; but they have now loſt all footing in North America; though on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement which is called Cayenne, or Equinoctial France, and is ſituated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of weſt longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, Eaſt; by Amazonia, South; and by Guiana, Weſt. The chief town is

Caen.

Caen. All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt India Iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity. They have alſo taken poſſeſſion of the iſland of Cayenne, on this coaſt, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The iſland is very unhealthy; but having ſome good harbours, the French have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar and coffee.

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## FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were amongſt the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are ſenſible, that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquiſitions, the proſperity of their plantations muſt be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reaſon, the plantations are particularly under the care and inſpection of the council of commerce, a board compoſed of twelve of the moſt conſiderable officers of the crown, aſſiſted by the deputies of all the conſiderable trading towns and cities in France, who are choſen out of the richeſt and moſt intelligent of their traders, and paid a handſome ſalary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their reſpective cities. This council ſits once a week, when the deputies propoſe plans for redreſſing every grievance in trade, for raiſing the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for ſupporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent, of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the inſtructions of their conſtituents. When they are ſatisfied of the uſefulneſs of any regulation, they propoſe it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly iſſues, and which is executed with punctuality.

The government of their ſeveral colonies, is a governor, and intendant, and a royal council. The governor is inveſted with a great deal of power; which, however, on the ſide of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the ſide of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whoſe office it is to ſee that the people are not oppreſſed by the one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the conſtant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them: the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the ſevereſt penalties, to interrogate all captains of ſhips coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they ſailed? how juſtice was adminiſtered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

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That the colonies may be as little burthened as poſſible, and that the governor may have leſs temptation to ſtir up troubleſome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his ſalary is paid by the crown: he has no perquiſites, and is ſtrictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the iſlands or on the continent; or any intereſt whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the houſe he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the ſoldiers paid, out of the ſame funds. In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes have been raiſed, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce at the Weſt India iſlands, or at its import into France, are next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all. Their other regulations, reſpecting the judges of the admiralty, law-ſuits, recovery of debts, lenity to ſuch as have ſuffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad ſeaſons; the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, laſtly, the management of Negroes, cannot be ſufficiently admired; and would, probably, be of great uſe, were ſome of them introduced into our ſugar iſlands, where proper regulations in many reſpects ſeem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, as the moſt important and valuable of all their foreign ſettlements, and which they poſſeſs through the indolence of the Spaniards on that iſland, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We ſhall next proceed to the iſlands of which the French have the ſole poſſeſſion, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 deg. of north lat. and in 61 degrees weſt lon. lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, upon every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico is the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious, and ſo well fortified, that they uſed to bid defiance to the Engliſh, who in vain often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in 16 degrees north lat. and in 62 weſt lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt as much ſouth of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad.—It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. Its ſoil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar almoſt incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the Engliſh, who gave up the attempt; but

but in 1759, it was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

St. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. 80 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But the French, before the laſt war but one broke out, began to ſettle theſe iſlands; which by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleaſant rivers, and well ſituated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778; but it was reſtored again to the French in 1783.

TOBAGO.] This iſland is ſituated 11 degrees odd min. north lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed, in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kinds of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appear from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781, it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE. } Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and are of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt India trade.

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# DUTCH AMERICA.

## Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Braſil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich

rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh Main.

Dutch Guiana is ſituated between five and ſeven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low, and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. This is one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a leſs proſperous ſituation than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars they have been engaged in with their fugitive Negroes, whom they have treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous, having increaſed from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almoſt inacceſſible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former maſters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themſelves, they have cultivated lands for their ſubſiſtence, and making frequent incurſions into the neighbouring plantations, revenge themſelves upon their old oppreſſors. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dying drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions; and take home a large quantity of molaſſes.

Connected with Surinam, we ſhall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Iſſequibo on the Spaniſh Main, which ſurrendered to the Engliſh in the year 1781, and were repreſented as a very valuable acquiſition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the Britiſh Weſt India iſlands united. But the report was either not believed or ſlighted, for the colonies were left defenceleſs, and ſoon were retaken by a French frigate.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people has likewiſe generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours immutably depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either Whites, Indians, or Negroes. Theſe are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with ſeveral intermediate ſubdiviſions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourſe. There are ſo great a number of birds, of various ſpecies, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in this colony have employed themſelves advantageouſly, with their ſlaves and dependents, in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of naturaliſts in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock perfectly reſembling that of electricity. There are an immenſe number and variety of ſnakes in this country, and which form one of its principal inconveniencies. A ſnake was killed ſome years ſince, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt,

Amyatt, Esq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largest place, near the middle, was three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair; and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

## DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS.] SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. 63° 10′ W. long. and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, and is only a mountain about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it to turn out to very good account; and it is said to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 Negroes. The sides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great Britain against Holland, admiral Rodney was sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatius, which, being incapable of any defence, surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the English nation were formerly characterised. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the revolted colonies with naval and other stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year, St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for the island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect: they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far one of the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the

Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous of all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribbons, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt India, which is alſo their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the Negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods: and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers ſhops, with every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000l. but in time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt Indies: it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition to deſtroy one another. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt India company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences: the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martin's, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned: they were both captured by admiral Rodney and General Vaughan; at the time when St. Euſtatia ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

## DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in 64 degrees weſt lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt India Company were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the Company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh Main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo. But, indeed, theſe two nations, the Dutch and Danes, hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there being ſo inconſiderable; and yet the Dutch are ſaid to make their ſhare of them worth at leaſt 600,000l. a year.

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## NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been conſiderably augmented by the late diſcoveries of the Ruſſians, and ſtill more by thoſe that have been made by Britiſh navigators in the preſent reign, which have been numerous and important: and of theſe diſcoveries we ſhall therefore give a compendious account.

## NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS conſiſts of ſeveral groups of iſlands, which are ſituated between the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka and the weſtern coaſt of the continent of America *. Mr. Muller divides theſe iſlands into four principal

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* Mr. Coxe obſerves, that "the firſt project for making diſcoveries in that tempeſtuous ſea, which lies betweem Kamtſchatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown; but when it was diſcovered, that the iſlands of the ſea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in ſimilar expeditions; and, within a period of ten years, more important diſcoveries were made by theſe individuals, at their own private coſt, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The inveſtigation of uſeful knowledge has alſo been greatly encouraged by the preſent empreſs of Ruſſia; and the moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt dominions, and other countries and iſlands, have been explored, at her expence, by perſons of abilities and learning, in conſequence of which conſiderable diſcoveries have been made.

groups, the two firſt of which are ſtyled the Aleutian iſlands. The firſt group, which is called by ſome of the iſlanders Saſignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's iſland; 2. Copper Iſland; 3. Otoa; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The ſecond group is called Khao, and comprizes eight iſlands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kiſka; 3. Ichetchia; 4. Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tſchangulak; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtſchidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the iſlands known to the Ruſſians under the name of Andreanoffſki Oſtrova; ſixteen of which are mentioned under the following names: 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotſha; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illaſk, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has alſo a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Sketſhuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Gorleoi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends ſixteen iſlands; which are called by the Ruſſians Lyſſie Oſtrova, or the *Fox Iſlands*; and which are named, 1. Amughta; 2. Tſchigama; 3. Tſchegula; 4. Uniſtra; 5. Uiaga; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alaſhika; 12. Unimma; 13. Ungan; 14. Anuro-Leiſſume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of theſe iſlands are only inhabited occaſionally, and for ſome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conſtantly reſide in them. Copper Iſland receives its name from the copper which the ſea throws upon its coaſts. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are, in general of a ſhort ſtature, with ſtrong and robuſt limbs, but free and ſupple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flatiſh faces, and fair ſkins. They are for the moſt part well made, and of ſtrong conſtitutions, ſuitable to the boiſterous climate of their iſles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian iſles live upon roots which grow wild, and ſea-animals. They do not employ themſelves in catching fiſh, though the rivers abound with all kinds of ſalmon, and the ſea with turbot. Their cloaths are made of the ſkins of birds, and of ſea-otters.

The Fox Iſlands are ſo called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dreſs of the inhabitants conſiſts of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fiſhing caps, they place a ſmall board like a ſkreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of ſea-bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads, which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing parties they uſe a much more ſhewy ſort of caps. They feed upon the fleſh of all ſorts of ſea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they chooſe to dreſs their victuals, they make uſe of a hollow ſtone; having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the interſtices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſion intended for keeping is dried without ſalt in the open air. Their weapons conſiſt of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they uſe wooden ſhields.

The moſt perfect equality reigns among theſe iſlanders. They have neither chiefs nor ſuperiors, neither laws nor puniſhments. They live together in families, and ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which form what they call a race, who in caſe of an attack, or defence, mutually help and ſupport each other. The inhabitants of the ſame iſland always pretend to be of the ſame race; and every perſon looks upon his iſland

as a poſſeſſion, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the ſame ſociety. Feaſts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of the others. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who ſing and dance. At the concluſion of the dance, the hoſts ſerve up their beſt proviſions, and invite their gueſts to partake of the feaſt. They feed their children when very young with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea ſide, and, whether it be ſummer or winter, hold it naked in the water until it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the leaſt inconvenience. They ſeldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are deſirous of warming themſelves, they light a bundle of hay, and ſtand over it; or elſe they ſet fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow ſtone. They have a good ſhare of plain natural ſenſe, but are rather ſlow of underſtanding. They ſeem cold and indifferent in moſt of their actions; but let an injury, or even a ſuſpicion only, rouſe them from this phlegmatic ſtate, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the moſt violent revenge, without any regard to the conſequences. The leaſt affliction prompts them to ſuicide, the apprehenſion of even an uncertain evil often leads them to deſpair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent inſenſibility.

## OTAHEITE, or KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin *, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is ſituated between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. ſouth latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 minutes weſt long. It conſiſts of

* The Dolphin was ſent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the Britiſh government, in Auguſt, 1766, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Theſe veſſels proceeded together, till they came within ſight of the South Sea, at the weſtern entrance of the ſtrait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallis diſcovered an iſland, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitſun Iſland*, it being diſcovered on Whitſun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26′ S. and its longitude, 137° 56′ W. The next day he diſcovered another iſland, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſland*. The inhabitants of this iſland, captain Wallis ſays, were of a middle ſtature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung looſe over their ſhoulders. The men were well made, and the women handſome. Their clothing was a kind of coarſe cloth or matting, which was faſtened about their middle, and ſeemed capable of being brought up round their ſhoulders. This iſland is about ſix miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18′ S. longitude 138° 4′ W. In the ſpace of a few days after, he alſo diſcovered ſeveral other ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Iſland*, *Glouceſter Iſland*, *Cumberland Iſland*, *Prince William Henry's Iſland*, and *Oſnaburgh Iſland*.

On the 19th of the ſame month he diſcovered the iſland of Otaheite; and, after he had quitted that iſland, he diſcovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another iſland about ſix miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Iſland*; and on the 30th of the ſame month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Iſland*. After having diſcovered ſome other ſmall iſlands, one of which was named *Wallis's Iſland*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good

of two peninſulas, of a ſomewhat circular form, joined by an iſthmus, and is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form ſeveral excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almoſt any number of the largeſt ſhips. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almoſt entirely ſurrounds each peninſula, and behind this border the land riſes in ridges that run up into the middle of theſe diviſions, and theſe form mountains that may be ſeen at ſixty leagues diſtance. The ſoil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the moſt delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the ſea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with ſome of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made ſome ſtay at this iſland; and it was afterwards viſited again by Captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. now Sir Joſeph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and thoſe gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate ſurvey of the iſland.

Some parts of the iſland of Otaheite are very populous: and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole iſland amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, ſtrong, well-limbed, and finely ſhaped: the women are of an inferior ſize, but handſome, and very amorous, and indeed generally ſomewhat licentious. Their clothing conſiſts of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greateſt part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houſes, thoſe which are of a middling ſize, are of an oblong ſquare, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a ſhelving roof ſupported on three rows of poſts, parallel to each other, one row on each ſide, and one in the middle. The utmoſt height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each ſide reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the reſt is open, no part being incloſed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered ſome inches deep with ſoft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon theſe they ſit in the day, and ſleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and thoſe they uſe are

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Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768, and his ſhip anchored ſafely in the Downs, on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having paſſed through the ſtrait of Magellan, and made ſome ſtay at the iſland of Mafafuero, he diſcovered, on the 2d of July 1767, an iſland about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Iſland*. It lies in latitude 25° 2′ S. longitude 133° 21′ W. and about a thouſand leagues to the weſtward of the continent of America. The 11th of the ſame month he diſcovered another ſmall iſland, to which he gave the name of *the Biſhop of Oſnaburgh's Iſland*. The next day he diſcovered two other ſmall iſlands, which he called *the duke of Glouceſter's Iſlands*. The following month he diſcovered a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſlands*, and alſo three others, which he named *Gower's Iſland*, *Simſon's Iſland*, and *Carteret's Iſland*. On the 24th of the ſame month, he diſcovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Iſland*, which lies in the latitude 4° 5′ S. and the next day *Winchelſea's Iſland*, which is diſtant about ten leagues, in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards diſcovered ſeveral other iſlands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March, 1769.

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made of ſtone, or ſome kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanlineſs; for both men and women conſtantly waſh their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is ſoft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There are no tame animals on the iſland but hogs, dogs, and poultry; and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds, rats, and a very few ſerpents. The ſea, however, ſupplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the moſt excellent fiſh.

In other countries, the men cut their hair ſhort, and the women pride themſelves on its length; but here the women always cut it ſhort round their ears, and the men (except the fiſhers, who are almoſt continually in the water) ſuffer it to ſpread over their ſhoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the cuſtom of diſcolouring the ſkin, by pricking it with a ſmall inſtrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattowing. This is performed upon the youth of both ſexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on ſeveral parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different trees. The fineſt and whiteſt is made of the Chineſe paper mulberry tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another conſiderable manufacture is matting, ſome of which is finer, and in every reſpect better than any we have in Europe. The coarſer ſort ſerves them to ſleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewiſe very dexterous in making wicker-work: their baſkets are of a thouſand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one Supreme Deity, but at the ſame time acknowledge a variety of ſubordinate Deities: they offer up their prayers without the uſe of idols, and believe the exiſtence of the ſoul in a ſeparate ſtate, where there are two ſituations, of different degrees of happineſs. Among thoſe people a ſubordination is eſtabliſhed, which ſomewhat reſembles the early ſtate of the European nations, under the feudal ſyſtem. If a general attack happens to be made upon the iſland, every diſtrict is obliged to furniſh its proportion of ſoldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are ſlings, which they uſe with great dexterity, and clubs of about ſix or ſeven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are conſtructed for warlike operations.

## THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the ſeveral iſlands ſo called, and which were diſcovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUHAEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUHAEINE is about 31 leagues to the north-

* At the cloſe of the year 1767 it was reſolved, by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the Sun's diſk, which, according to aſtronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the iſlands called Marqueſas de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam, or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervation. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the ſociety, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleaſed to order

north-weſt of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the ſame, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants ſeem to be larger made,

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order ſuch an obſervation to be made; upon which his majeſty ſignified to the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty his pleaſure, that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the ſociety ſhould think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of three hundred and ſeventy tons was prepared for that purpoſe. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was ſoon after, by the Royal Society, appointed with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long aſſiſtant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal Obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this aſtronomical obſervation, he, by letter, dated on board the Delphin, the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Haſtings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the iſland of Otaheite; the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in anſwer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whether they would have their obſervers ſent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook ſet ſail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of Auguſt 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Iſland. Two Groups, Bird Iſland, and Chain Iſland; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their ſtay at that iſland, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June, the whole paſſage of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk was obſerved by them with great advantage. The reſult of their obſervations may be found in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the ſouth till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes; longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W.; and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt of New Zealand. In November, he diſcovered a chain of iſlands, which he called *Barrier Iſlands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the iſland of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips, in order to make farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accordingly the Reſolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpoſe; the firſt was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They ſailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the ſame month arrived at the iſland of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In that month the Reſolution and the Adventure ſeparated, in conſequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's ſound, on the 18th of May following. In Auguſt they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they diſcovered Hervey's Iſland. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Iſlands; and about the cloſe of that month, the Reſolution and the Adventure were ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped in his progreſs by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes ſouth; longitude 106 degrees 54 minutes weſt. He then proceeded to Eaſter Iſland, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did alſo in the ſame month at the Marqueſas Iſlands. He afterwards diſcovered four iſlands, which he named Palliſer's Iſlands, and again ſteered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made ſome ſtay, and alſo viſited the neighbouring iſles. In Auguſt, he came to the New Hebrides, ſome of which were firſt diſcovered by him. After leaving theſe iſlands, he ſteered to the ſouthward a few days, and diſcovered New Caledonia. Having ſurveyed the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, captain Cook ſteered again for New Zealand, in order to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. Directing his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived

made, and more ſtout, than thoſe of Otaheite. Mr. Banks meaſured one of the men, and found him to be ſix feet three inches and a half high; yet they are ſo indolent, that he could not perſuade one of them to go up the hills with him: for they ſaid, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than thoſe of Otaheite, and both ſexes appear leſs timid and leſs curious; though in their dreſs, language, and almoſt every other circumſtance, they are the ſame. Their houſes are neat, and they have boat-houſes that are remarkably large. *Ulitea* is about ſeven or eight leagues to the ſouth-weſtward of Huaheine, and is a much larger iſland, but appears neither ſo fertile nor ſo populous. The principal refreſhments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two laſt are rather ſcarce. *Otaha* is divided from Ulitea by a ſtrait, that, in the narroweſt part, is not above two miles broad. This iſland affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the ſame kind as that of the other iſlands. About four leagues to the north-weſt of Otaha lies *Bolabola*, which is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compaſs. To theſe iſlands, and thoſe of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the weſtward of Bolabola, containing ſix in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Iſlands.

## O H E T E R O A.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. weſt from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo popu-

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arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees ſix minutes ſouth, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes weſt, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of diſcovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a reſolution to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the ſtrait of Magellan, with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the outermoſt or ſouth-ſide of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55, and ſteering nearly eaſt, he arrived off the weſtern mouth of the ſtraits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards diſcovered various capes and elevated ſnow-clad coaſts, to the moſt ſouthern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule*, as being the neareſt land to that pole, which has yet been diſcovered. In February he diſcovered *Sandwich Land*, and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the Adventure, a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage affords a melancholy proof that cannibals really exiſt; and, indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, he had made the circuit of the ſouthern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave not the leaſt room for the poſſibility of there being a ſouthern continent, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deſerves alſo to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty-two degrees north, to ſeventy-one degrees ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs; and this appears, in a conſiderable degree, to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men.

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lous nor fertile as ſome of the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are luſty, and well made, but are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa-wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are near twenty feet long.

## THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were ſo named by captain Cook in the year 1773, on account of the friendſhip which appeared to ſubſiſt among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to ſtrangers. Abel Janſen Taſman, an eminent Dutch navigator, firſt touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal iſlands. Captain Cook laborioufly explored the whole cluſter, which he found to conſiſt of more than twenty. The three iſlands which Taſman ſaw he named New Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The firſt is the largeſt, and extends about 21 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 13 from north to ſouth. Theſe iſlands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great induſtry. The iſland of Amſterdam is interſected by ſtraight and pleaſant roads, with fruit-trees on each ſide, which provide ſhade from the ſcorching heat of the ſun.

The chief iſlands are Annamooka, Tongataboo, and Eooa. This laſt, when viewed from the ſhip at anchor, formed one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in nature; and very different from the others of the Friendly Iſles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here, the land riſing gently to a conſiderable height, preſented an extenſive proſpect, where groves of trees are only interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in beautiful diſorder, and all the reſt is covered with graſs, except near the ſhores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongſt which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the iſland as poſſible, captain Cook and ſome of his officers walked up to the higheſt point of the iſland. From this place they had a view of almoſt the whole iſland, which conſiſted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. 'While I was ſurveying this delightful proſpect,' ſays captain Cook, 'I could not help flattering myſelf with the pleaſing idea that ſome future navigator may, from the ſame ſtation, behold theſe meadows ſtocked with cattle, brought to theſe iſlands by the ſhips of England; and that the completion of this ſingle benevolent purpoſe, independent of all other conſiderations, would ſufficiently mark to poſterity, that our voyages had not been uſeleſs to the general intereſts of humanity.'

## NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed, in our maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent: but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of captain Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four

four or five leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34 and 18 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks, and of Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed, that the winters are milder than those in England, and the summers are not hotter, though more equally warm; so that it is imagined, that if this country were settled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied, not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by the naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattowing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shewn themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them.

## THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by Capt. Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Espiritu Santo. From that time till Capt. Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra Australis incognita*. But when Captain Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore these parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south; and between 66 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Tierra del Espiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large island, first discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chesnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island.

# NEW HOLLAND.

THIS country is of a much larger extent than any other that does not bear the name of a continent, it extending from the eleventh to the thirty-eighth degree of ſouth latitude; and the length of the eaſt and north-eaſt coaſt, along which Capt. Cook ſailed, reduced to a ſtraight line, is no leſs than twenty-ſeven degrees, which amount to near two thouſand miles. The country is rather barren than fertile; yet in many places the riſing grounds are chequered by woods and lawns, and the plains and vallies covered with herbage. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, are naked ſavages, of a middle ſtature, extremely active, and their ſkins of a chocolate colour, but their features are not diſagreeable. Their food is chiefly fiſh, birds of various kinds, yams, fruit, and the fleſh of a ſingular quadruped called the Kangaroo. Their weapons are ſpears or lances of different kinds, which they throw with great force and dexterity. They alſo uſe ſhields or targets of an oblong form, made of the bark of a tree.

NEW GUINEA, till the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north-coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Capt. Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them, which runs north-eaſt, through which he ſailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt, from the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and moſt of the trees, ſhrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South-ſea iſlands. It affords from the ſea a variety of delightful proſpects. The inhabitants make nearly the ſame appearance as the New Hollanders on the other ſide the ſtraits.

To the north of New Guinea is NEW BRITAIN, which is ſituated in the 4th degree of ſouth latitude, and 152 deg. 19 min. eaſt longitude from Greenwich. It was ſuppoſed to be part of an imaginary continent till Capt. Dampier found it to be an iſland, and ſailed through a ſtrait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 176, found it was of much leſs extent than it was till then imagined to be, by ſailing through another ſtrait to the north, which ſeparates it from a long iſland, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and ſtately trees. To the eaſtward of New Britain, and in both the above ſtraits, are many iſlands, moſt of which are ſaid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-eaſt, about two hundred and ſeventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black, and woolly headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noſes and thick lips. North-weſtward of New Ireland a cluſter of iſlands was ſeen by Capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and ſuppoſed to conſiſt of twenty or thirty in number. One of theſe, which is of very conſiderable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; but the reſt of the cluſter received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.



Beſides

Beſides the voyages of diſcovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by Capt. Cook and Capt. Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their courſe they diſcovered two iſlands, which Capt. Cook called Prince's Edward's Iſles. The largeſt about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46, 53 ſouth, longitude 37, 46; the other about 9 leagues in circuit, lat. 46, 40 and long. 38, 8, E. both barren and almoſt covered with ſnow. From New Holland to New Zealand, and afterwards viſited the Friendly and the Society Iſles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. N. latitude. The air of theſe iſlands is in general ſalubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of the Society and Friendly Iſles. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, ſtout, and well-made, and their complexions in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. eaſt, they ſaw part of the American continent, bearing north-eaſt. They afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive: that part of it where the ſhips under the command of Capt. Cook anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. eaſt. The whole ſound is ſurrounded by high land, which in ſome places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land, which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka, and after their departure from thence, ſtill continued to trace the American coaſt, till they diſcovered the ſtrait which ſeparates it from the continent of Aſia. Here both the hemiſpheres preſented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the ſea between them not very deep. They paſſed the ſtrait, and arrived on the 20th of Auguſt 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward, the cloſer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a ſtorm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a conſultation was therefore held on board the Reſolution, as ſoon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was reſolved, that as this paſſage was impracticable for any uſeful purpoſe of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it ſhould be proſecuted no farther; and eſpecially on account of the condition the ſhips were in, the approach of winter, and their great diſtance from any known place of refreſhment. The voyage indeed afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the North; and this voyage alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened that the celebrated and able navigator, Capt. Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, on the iſland of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich iſles, on the 14th of February, 1779; and his death was univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but alſo

in

in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known. In his laſt voyage he had explored the coaſt of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 ſec. north. After the death of Capt. Cook, the command devolved on Capt. Clerke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward on the 22d day of Auguſt, 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inſerting the following extract, to perpetuate the memory and ſervices of ſo excellent a navigator.

Perhaps no ſcience ever received greater additions from the labours of a ſingle man than geography has done from thoſe of Captain Cook. In his firſt voyage to the South Seas, he diſcovered the Society Iſlands; determined the inſularity of New Zealand; diſcovered the ſtraits which ſeparate the two iſlands, and are called after his name; and made a complete ſurvey of both. He afterwards explored the Eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-ſeven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thouſand miles.

In his ſecond expedition, he reſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, having traverſed that hemiſphere between the latitude of 40° and 70°, in ſuch a manner as not to leave a poſſibility of its exiſtence, unleſs near the Pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage, he diſcovered New Caledonia, the largeſt iſland in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the iſland of Georgia; and an unknown coaſt, which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the Southern hemiſphere; and having twice viſited the tropical ſeas, he ſettled the ſituations of the old, and made ſeveral new diſcoveries.

But the laſt voyage is diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt, by the extent and importance of its diſcoveries. Beſides ſeveral ſmaller iſlands in the Southern Pacific, he diſcovered, to the North of the Equinoctial Line, the group called the Sandwich Iſlands, which, from their ſituation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of conſequence in the ſyſtem of European navigation, than any other diſcovery in the South Sea. He afterward explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the Weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° North, containing an extent of three thouſand and five hundred miles; aſcertained the proximity of the two great continents of Aſia and America; paſſed the ſtraits between them, and ſurveyed the coaſt on each ſide, to ſuch a height of northern latitude, as to demonſtrate the impracticability of a paſſage, in that hemiſphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an Eaſtern or a Weſtern courſe. In ſhort, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japaneſe Archipelago, which ſtill remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

As a navigator, his ſervices were not perhaps leſs ſplendid, certainly not leſs important and meritorious. The method which he diſcovered, and ſo ſucceſsfully purſued, of preſerving the health of ſeamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will tranſmit his name to future ages, amongſt the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Thoſe who are converſant in naval hiſtory, need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been ſought, through the medium of long voyages at ſea, have always been purchaſed. That dreadful diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracks of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate,

muſt,

muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterprizes. It was reſerved for Captain Cook to ſhew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree.

## TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing diſcoveries of navigators, and the progreſs made in geography, ſince the firſt voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed.

## IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe the moderns are acquainted with the ſea-coaſts only, and theſe very imperfectly; the internal parts being little known to us, nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain, that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country bleſſed with a variety of climates, ſome of them the fineſt in the world.

## IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the Pole, are Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like thoſe of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and theſe ſavage; low in ſtature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw fleſh of whales, bears, oxen, &c. and go muffled up in ſkins, the hairy ſides next their bodies. In theſe inhoſpitable regions, their nights (as may be ſeen in the table of climates in the Introduction) are from one to ſix months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable ſnow; ſo that the miſerable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the ſun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the ſouth, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements; which, from the unhealthfulneſs of the climate

climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

The country of Amazonia, ſo called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly diſcovered, though it is ſituated between the European colonies of Peru and Braſil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe; but being always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement there.

Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren, inhoſpitable country. And here in 52½ degrees ſouth lat. we fall in with the Straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the iſlands of Terra del Fuego on the ſouth. Theſe Straits extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been ſince conſidered as the firſt navigator that ſailed round the world, but having loſt his life in a ſkirmiſh with ſome Indians before the ſhips returned to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circumnavigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave ſir Francis Drake, who in 1574 paſſed the ſame ſtrait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtraits, diſcovered in lat. 54½ another paſſage, ſince known by the name of the Straits La Maire, and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anſon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtraits and iſlands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of ſummer.

A NEW

# A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps, and Obſervations.

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abbeville, | Picardy, | France, | Europe, | 50°7′N. | 1°54′E. |
| Aberdeen | Aberdeenſhire, | Scotland, | Europe, | 57-22N. | 1-40W. |
| Abo, | Finland, | Sweden, | Europe, | 60-27N. | 22-18E. |
| Acapulco, | Mexico, | North | America, | 17-10N. | 101-20W. |
| Adriatic ſea, or Gulf of Venice | between | Italy and Turkey, | Europe, | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Achem, | Sumatra, | Eaſt India, | Aſia, | 5-22N. | 95-29E. |
| Adventure (Iſle) | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia, | 17-05 S. | 144-12W. |
| Agde, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe, | 43-18N. | 3-33E. |
| Agen, | Guienne, | France, | Europe, | 44-12N. | 0-40E. |
| St. Agnes (lights) | Scillies, | Atlantic ocean, | Europe, | 49-56N. | 6-41W. |
| Agra, | Agra, | Eaſt India, | Aſia, | 26-43N. | 76-49E. |
| Air, | Airſhire, | Scotland, | Europe, | 55-30N. | 4-35W. |
| Adrianople, | Romania, | Turkey, | Europe, | 42-00N. | 26-30E. |
| Aix, | Provence, | France, | Europe, | 43-31N. | 5-31E. |
| Alby, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe, | 43-55N. | 2-13E. |
| Aleppo, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia, | 35-45N. | 37-25E. |
| Alexandretta, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia, | 36-35N. | 36-25E. |
| Alexandria, | Lower Egypt, | Turkey, | Africa, | 31-11N. | 30-21E. |
| Algiers, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa, | 36-49N. | 2-17E. |
| Albany, | New York, | North | America, | 42-48N. | 73-30W. |
| Amboyna, | Amboyna Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia, | 4-25 S. | 127-25E. |
| Ambrym Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia, | 16-09 S. | 168-17E. |
| Amiens, | Iſle of France, | France, | Europe, | 49-53N. | 2-22E. |
| Amsterdam, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe, | 52-22N. | 4-49E. |
| Amſterdam, | Iſle, | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia, | 21-09S. | 174-51W. |
| Ancona, | March of Ancona, | Italy, | Europe, | 43-37N. | 13-35E. |
| Angra, | Tercera Iſle, | Atlantic ocean, | Europe, | 38-39N. | 27-07W. |
| Antigua (St. John's town) | Antigua Iſle, | Carib. ſea, | N. America, | 17-04N. | 62-04W. |
| Antioch, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia, | 36-30N. | 36-40E. |
| Antwerp, | Brabant | Netherlands, | Europe, | 51-13N. | 04-27E. |
| Archipelago, | Iſland of | Greece, | Europe, | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Apæ (Iſle) | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia, | 16-46S. | 168-32E. |
| Archangel, | Dwina, | Ruſſia, | Europe, | 64-34N. | 38-59E. |
| Aſcenſion Iſle, | | South Atlantic | Ocean, | 7-56N. | 14-27W. |
| Aſtracan, | Aſtracan, | Ruſſia, | Aſia, | 46-00N. | 51-00E. |
| Athens, | Achaia, | Turkey, | Europe, | 38-05N. | 23-57E. |
| St. Auguſtin, | Madagaſcar | South Ind. ſea, | Africa, | 23-35 S. | 43-13E. |
| Aurora Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia, | 15-08 S. | 168-22E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AVA, | Ava, | East India, | Asia | 20-20N. | 95-30E. |
| Avignon, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-57N. | 04-53E. |
| BAgdad, | Eyraca Arabia, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-20N. | 43-51E. |
| Baltic sea, | between | Ger. and Swed. | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Balasore, | Orixa, | East India, | Asia | 21-20N. | 86-05E. |
| Bay of Biscay, | Coast of | France, | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Bay of Bengal, | Coast of | India, | Asia | Indian Ocean. | |
| Baldivia, | Chili, | South | America | 39-35S. | 81-10W. |
| Balbec, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-30N. | 37-00E. |
| Barcelona, | Catalonia, | Spain, | Europe | 41-26N. | 02-18E. |
| Barbuda Isle, | | Atlantic ocean, | N. America | 17-49N. | 61-55W. |
| Basil, | Basil, | Switzerland, | Europe | 47-35N. | 07-34E. |
| Bassora, | Eyraca Arabia, | Turkey, | Asia | 30-45N. | 47-00E. |
| Bastia, | Corsica, | Italy, | Europe | 42-20N. | 09-40E. |
| Bath, | Somersetshire, | England, | Europe | 51-22N. | 02-16W. |
| Belfast, | Ulster, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-30N. | 06-30W. |
| Bender, | Bassarabia, | Turkey, | Europe | 46-40N. | 29-00E. |
| Bayeux, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-16N. | 00-47E. |
| BERLIN, | Brandenburg, | Germany, | Europe | 52-32N. | 13-31E. |
| Bermudas, | Bermuda Isles, | Atlantic ocean, | N. America | 32-25N. | 63-25W. |
| Bern, | Bern, | Switzerland, | Europe | 47-00N. | 07-20E. |
| Berwick, | Berwickshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48N. | 01-45W. |
| Belgrade, | Servia, | Turkey, | Europe | 45-00N. | 21-20E. |
| Bencoolen, | Sumatra, | East India, | Asia | 03-49S. | 102-05E. |
| Batavia, | Java, | East India, | Asia | 06-10S. | 106-56E. |
| Basse Terre, | Guadaloupe, | Carib. sea, | N. America | 15-59N. | 61-54W. |
| Bourdeaux, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-50N. | 00-29W. |
| Bayonne, | Gascony, | France, | Europe | 43-29N. | 01-25W. |
| Borroughston-nefs, | Linlithgowsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48N. | 03-44W. |
| Boston, | Lincolnshire, | England, | Europe | 53-10N. | 00-25E. |
| BOSTON, | New England, | North | America | 42-25N. | 70-32W. |
| Bolabola, | Isle, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-32S. | 151-47W. |
| Bologne, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50-43N. | 1-31E. |
| Bologna, | Bolognese, | Italy, | Europe | 44-29N. | 11-26E. |
| Bolscheriskoi, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 52-54N. | 156-42E. |
| Bombay, | Bombay Isle, | East India, | Asia | 18-56N. | 72-43E. |
| Bridge-town, | Barbadoes, | Atlantic ocean, | N. America | 13-05N. | 58-03W. |
| Bilboa, | Biscay, | Spain, | Europe | 43-26N. | 03-18W. |
| Birmingham, | Warwickshire, | England, | Europe | 52-30N. | 01-50W. |
| Bokharia, | Usbec | Tartary, | Asia | 39-15N. | 67-00E. |
| Breda, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-40N. | 04-40E. |
| Brest, | Bretany, | France, | Europe | 48-22N. | 04-25W. |
| Bremen, | Lower Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 53-25N. | 08-20E. |
| Bristol, | Somersetshire, | England, | Europe | 51-33N. | 02-40W. |
| BRESLAW, | Silesia, | Bohemia, | Europe | 51-03N. | 17-13E. |
| Brussels, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-51N. | 04-26E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Buenos Ayres, | La Plata, | Brafil, | South America | 34-35 S. | 58-26 E. |
| Bukaraft, | Walachia, | Turkey, | Europe | 44-26N. | 26-13 E. |
| Britiſh ſea, | between | Brit. & Germ. | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Black, or Euxine ſea, | Turkey in | Europe and | Aſia | | |
| Bruges, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-16N. | 03-05 E. |
| Brunſwick, | Low Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 52-30N. | 10-30 E. |
| Buda, | Lower | Hungary, | Europe | 47-40N. | 19-20 E. |
| Burlington, | Jerſey, | North | Americ. | 40-08N. | 75-00W. |
| Bourbon Iſle | South | Indian Ocean, | Africa | 20-51 S. | 55-25 E. |
| CAbello, (Port), | Terra Firma, | South | America | 10-03N. | 67-27W. |
| Cadiz, | Andaluſia, | Spain, | Europe | 36-31N. | 6-06W. |
| Caen, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-11N. | 0-16W. |
| Cahors, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-26N. | 1-31 E. |
| Cagliari, | Sardinia, | Italy, | Europe | 39-25N. | 9-38 E. |
| CACHAO, | Tonquin, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-30N. | 105-00 E. |
| Cairo, | Lower | Egypt, | Africa | 30-02N. | 31-23 E. |
| Calais, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50-57N. | 1-55 E. |
| Callao, | Peru, | South | America | 12-01N. | 76-53W. |
| Calcutta, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 22-34N. | 88-34 E. |
| Calmar, | Smaland, | Sweden, | Europe | 56-40N. | 16-26 E. |
| Cambray, | Cambreſis, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-10N. | 3-18 E. |
| Cambeltown, | Argyleſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-30N. | 5-40W. |
| Cambridge, | Cambridgeſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-12N. | 0-09 E. |
| Cambridge, | New | England, | N. America | 42-25N. | 71-05W. |
| Canary, N. E Point, | Canary Iſles, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-13N. | 15-33W. |
| Candia, | Candia Iſland, | Mediterr. Sea, | Europe | 35-18N. | 25-23 E. |
| Canſo Port, | Nova Scotia, | North | America | 45-20N. | 60-50W. |
| Cambodia, | Cambodia, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 13-30N. | 105-00E. |
| Canterbury, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-16N. | 1-15 E. |
| Canton, | Canton, | China, | Aſia | 23-07N. | 113-07 E. |
| Carleſcroon, | Schonen, | Sweden, | Europe | 56-20N. | 15-31 E. |
| Carthage Ruins, | Tunis, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-30N. | 9-00 E. |
| Carthagena, | Terra Firma, | South | America | 10-26N. | 75-21W. |
| Carthagena, | Murcia, | Spain, | Europe | 37-37N. | 1-03W. |
| Carliſle, | Cumberland, | England, | Europe | 54-47N. | 2-35W. |
| Cardigan, | Cardiganſhire, | Wales, | Europe | 52-10N. | 4-38W. |
| Candy, | Ceylon, | Indian Ocean, | Aſia | 7-54N. | 79-00 E. |
| Caſpian Sea, | Ruſſia, | Tartary, | Aſia | | |
| Caſan, | Caſan, | Siberia, | Aſia | 55-43N. | 49-13 E. |
| Caſſel, | Heſſe Caſſel, | Germany, | Europe | 51-19N. | 9-34 E. |
| Caſtres, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-37N. | 2-19 E. |
| St. Catharine's Iſle, | Atlantic, | Ocean, | South America | 27-35 S. | 49-12W. |
| Cavan, | Cavan, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-31N. | 7-18W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cayenne, | Cayenne Isle, | South | America | 4-56N. | 52-10W. |
| Cette, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-23N. | 3-47 E. |
| Challon, | Burgundy, | France, | Europe | 4 -46N. | 4-56 E. |
| Chandernagore | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 22-51N. | 88-34 E. |
| Charlton, | Isle, | Hudson's Bay, | North America, | 52-03N. | 79-00W. |
| Chartres, | Orleannois, | France, | Europe | 48-26N. | 1-33 E. |
| Cherbourg, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-38N. | 1-33W. |
| Christmas Sound, | Terra del Fuego, | South | America | 55-21N. | 69-57W. |
| St. Christopher's Isle, | Caribbean | Sea, | N. America, | 17-15N. | 62-38W. |
| Civita Vecchia | Patro Di S. Petro, | Italy, | Europe | 42-05N. | 11-51 E. |
| Clerk's Isles, | Atlantic | Ocean, | South America, | 55-05S. | 34-37W. |
| Clermont, | Auvergne, | France, | Europe | 45-46N. | 3-10 E. |
| Colmar, | Alsace, | France, | Europe | 48-04N. | 7-27 E. |
| Cologne, | Elect. of Cologne, | Germany, | Europe | 50-55N. | 7-10 E. |
| Cape Clear, | Irish Sea, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-18N. | 11-10W. |
| —— Comorin, | On this side the Ganges. | East India, | Asia | 7-56N. | 78-10 E. |
| — Finisterre, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 42-51N. | 9-12W. |
| — St. Vincent, | Algarve, | Portugal, | Europe | 37-02N. | 8-5-W. |
| — of Good Hope, | Hottentots, | Caffraria, | Africa | 34-29 S. | 18-28 E. |
| — Florida, | East Florida, | North | America | 24-57N. | 80-30W. |
| — Verd, | | Negroland, | Africa | 14-45N. | 17-28W. |
| — Horn, | Terra del Fuego Island, | South | America | 55-58S. | 67-21W. |
| Cattegate, | between | Swed. & Den. | Europe, | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Ceuta, | Fez, | Morocco, | Africa | 35-04N. | 6-30W. |
| Chester, | Cheshire, | England, | Europe | 53-15N. | 0-03W. |
| CHARLES-TOWN | SouthCarolina | North | America | 32-45N. | 79-12W. |
| COPENHAGEN, | Zealand Isle, | Denmark, | Europe | 55-40N. | 12-40 E. |
| CONSTANTINOPLE, | Romania, | Turkey, | Europe | 41-01N. | 28-58 E. |
| Cork, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-53N. | 8-23W. |
| Coventry, | Warwickshire, | England, | Europe | 52-25N. | 1-25W. |
| Constance, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 47-37N. | 9-12 E. |
| Corinth, | Morea, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-30N. | 23-00 E. |
| Cowes, | Isle of Wight, | England, | Europe | 50-46N. | 1-14W. |
| Cracow, | Little Poland, | Poland, | Europe | 50-10N. | 19-55 E. |
| Cremsmunster, | Arch-duchy of Austria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-03N. | 14-12 E. |
| Curassou, | Curassou Isle, | West India, | America | 11-56N. | 68-20W. |
| Cusco, | Peru, | South | America | 12-25 S. | 70-00W. |
| Cummin, | Isle, | North Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 31-40N. | 121-09 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Damaſcus, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 33-15N. | 37-20E. |
| Dantzic, | Poliſh Pruſſia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-22N. | 18-38E. |
| Dacca, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 23-30N. | 89-20E. |
| Delhi, | Delhi, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 29-00N. | 76-30E. |
| Delft, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-06N. | 4-05E. |
| Derbent, | Dagiſtan, | Perſia, | Aſia | 41-41N. | 50-30E. |
| Dax, | Gaſcony, | France, | Europe | 43-42N. | 0-58W. |
| Dieppe, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-55N. | 0-59E. |
| Dijon, | Burgundy, | France, | Europe | 47-19N. | 4-57E. |
| Dilbingen, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 48-30N. | 10-19E. |
| Del, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-33N. | 1-41W. |
| Dominique, | Wind. Iſlands, | Weſt India, | America | 15-18N. | 61-22W. |
| Dover, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-07N. | 1-13E. |
| Dreux, | Orleannois, | France, | Europe | 48-44N. | 1-16E. |
| Derby, | Derbyſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-58N. | 1-30W. |
| Derry, | Ulſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-52N. | 7-40W. |
| Dieu, | Guzerat, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-37N. | 69-30E. |
| DRESDEN, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-00N. | 13-36E. |
| Dundee, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-26N. | 2-48W. |
| DUBLIN, | Leinſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 53-21N. | 6-01W. |
| Durham, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-48N. | 1-25W. |
| Dumbarton, | Dumbartonſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-44N. | 4-20W. |
| Dungeneſs, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 50-52N. | 1-04E. |
| Dunkirk, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-02N. | 2-27E. |
| Dunbar, | Haddington, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 2-25W. |
| Dumfries, | Dumfriesſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-08N. | 3-25W. |
| English Channel, | between | Eng. and Fran. | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Eaſtern Ocean, | betw. the N.W. of N. Am. and N.E. of Aſia, | | | N. Pacific Ocean | |
| Epheſus, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Aſia | 38-01N. | 27-30E. |
| Eaoowe Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 21-24S. | 174-25W. |
| Eaſter Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | America | 27-06S. | 109-41W. |
| Edinburgh, | Edinburghſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-57N. | 3-07W. |
| Edyſtone, | Eng. Channel, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 4-19W. |
| Enebrun, | Dauphiné, | France, | Europe | 44-34N. | 6-34E. |
| Enatum Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 20-10S. | 169-59E. |
| Elbing, | Pruſſia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-15N. | 20-00E. |
| Embden, | Weſtphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 53-25N. | 7-10E. |
| Erramanga Iſle | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 18-46S. | 169-23E. |
| Erzerum, | Turcomania, | Turkey, | Aſia | 39-56N. | 42-05E. |
| Ethiopian Sea, | Coaſt of | Guinea, | Africa | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Euſtatius, | Carib. Sea, | Weſt India, | N. Amer. | 17-29N. | 63-05W. |
| Evereux, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-01N. | 1-13E. |
| Exeter, | Devonſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-44N. | 3-29W. |
| Falmouth, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 4-57W. |
| Falkirk, | Stirling, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 3-48W. |
| Fez, | Fez, | Morocco, | Africa | 33-30N. | 6-00W. |
| Ferrol, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 43-30N. | 8-40W. |
| Fayal Town, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-32N. | 28-36W. |
| Ferdinand Naronka, | | Braſil, | South America | 3-56S. | 32-43W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ferrara, | Ferrareſe, | Italy, | Europe | 44-54N. | 11-41 E. |
| Ferro (Town) | Canaries, | Atlan. Ocean, | Africa | 27-47N. | 17-40W. |
| Florence, | Tuſcany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-46N. | 11-07 E. |
| Flores, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 39-34N. | 30-51W. |
| St. Flour, | Auvergne, | France, | Europe | 45-01N. | 3-10 E. |
| France (Iſle of) | Indian | Ocean, | Africa | 20-09 S. | 57-33 E. |
| Francfort on the Main, | Franconia, | Germany, | Europe | 49-55N. | 8-40 E. |
| Frawenburg, | Poliſh | Pruſſia, | Europe | 54-22N. | 20-12 E. |
| Fuego Iſle, | Cape Verd, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 14-56N. | 24-23W. |
| Funchal, | Madeira, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 32-37N. | 17-01W. |
| Furneaux Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 17-11 S. | 143-01W. |
| Fort St. David, | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 12-05N. | 80-55 E. |
| GAP, | Dauphiné, | France, | Europe | 44-33N. | 6-09 E. |
| Genes, | Savoy, | Italy, | Europe | 44-25N. | 8-40 E. |
| Geneva, | Geneva, | Switzerland, | Europe | 46-12N. | 6-05 E. |
| St. Georg. Iſle, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-39N. | 27-55W. |
| GENOA, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 44-25N. | 8-30 E. |
| Gibraltar, | Andaluſia, | Spain, | Europe | 36-05N. | 5-17W. |
| St. George To. | Bermudas, | Atlant. Ocean, | N.Amer. | 32-45N. | 63-30W. |
| St. Georg. Fort | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 13-04N. | 80-33 E. |
| Ghent, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-03N. | 3-48 E. |
| Glaſgow, | Lanerkſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-51N. | 4-10W. |
| Goa, | Malabar, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 15-31N. | 73-50 E. |
| Goat Iſle, | Indian | Ocean, | Aſia | 13-55N. | 120-07 E. |
| Gomera Iſle, | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-05N. | 17-03W. |
| Good Hope, T. | Hottentots, | Caffres, | Africa | 33-55 S. | 18-28 E. |
| Goree, | Atlantic | Ocean, | Africa | 14-40N. | 17-20W. |
| Gottenburg, | Gothland, | Sweden, | Europe | 57-42N. | 11-43 E. |
| Gottengen, | Hanover, | Germany, | Europe | 51-31N. | 9-58 E. |
| Granville, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 48-50N. | 1-32W. |
| Gratioſa, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 39-02N. | 27-53W. |
| Gratz, | Stiria, | Germany, | Europe | 47-04N. | 15-29 E. |
| Gravelines, | Fr. Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-59N. | 2-13 E. |
| Gryphiſwald, | Pomerania, | Germany, | Europe | 54-04N. | 13-43 E. |
| Guadaloupe, | Caribean | Sea, | N.Amer. | 15-59N. | 61-54W. |
| Glouceſter, | Glouceſterſh. | England, | Europe | 51-05N. | 2-16W. |
| Gombroon, | Farſiſtan, | Perſia, | Aſia | 27-30N. | 74-20 E. |
| Greenock, | Renfrewſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-52N. | 4-22W. |
| Guam, | Ladrone Iſles, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 14-00N. | 140-30 E. |
| Gulf of Bothnia | Coaſt of | Sweden, | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| — of Finland, | between | Swed. & Ruſſia, | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| — of Venice, | between | Italy & Turk. | Europe | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| — of Ormus, | between | Perſia & Arab. | Aſia | Indian Ocean. | |
| — of Perſia, | between | Perſia & Arab. | Aſia | Indian Ocean. | |
| — of California | between | Calif. & Mexico | N.Amer. | Pacific Ocean. | |
| — of St. Law. | Coaſt of | New Scotland, | N.Amer. | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| — of Mexico, | Coaſt of | Mexico, | N.Amer. | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| HAGUE, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-04N. | 4-22 E. |
| Hamburg | Holſtein, | Germany, | Europe | 53-34N. | 9-55 E. |
| Haſtings, | Suſſex, | England, | Europe | 50-52N. | 0-40 E. |
| Halifax, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 1-52W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HALIFAX, | Nova Scotia, | North | America | 44-40N. | 63-15W. |
| Hanover, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 52-32N. | 9-35 E. |
| Havannah, | Cuba | Iſland, | N. Amer. | 23-11N. | 82-13W. |
| Havre de Grace | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-29N. | 0-10 E. |
| La Heeſe, | D. Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-25N. | 4-50 E. |
| Helleſpont, | Med. & Bl. Sea, | Europe and | Aſia | | |
| St. Helena, Ja. Town, | South | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 15-55 S. | 5-44W. |
| Hernoſand, | W. Bothnia, | Sweden, | Europe | 62-38N. | 17-58 E. |
| Hervey's Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-17 S. | 158-43W. |
| Haerlem, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-20N. | 4-10 E. |
| Hereford, | Herefordſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-06N. | 2-38W. |
| Hoai-Nghan, | Kian-Nan, | China, | Aſia | 33-34N. | 118-54 E. |
| La Hogue Cape | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-44N. | 1-51W. |
| Hood's Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 9-26 S. | 138-47W. |
| Hoogſtraten, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-24N. | 4-52 E. |
| Howe's Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-46 S. | 154-01W. |
| Huahine Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-44 S. | 151-01W. |
| Hull, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 0-12W. |
| Hudſon's Bay, | Coaſt of | Labrador, | N. Amer. | N. Atlantic Ocean. | |
| JAkutſkoi, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 62-01N. | 129-52 E. |
| Janeiro Rio, | | Braſil, | S. Amer. | 22-54 S. | 42-38W. |
| Jaſſy, | Moldavia, | Turkey, | Europe | 47-08N. | 27-34 E. |
| Java Head, | Java Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 6-49 S. | 106-55 E. |
| Jeddo, | Japan Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 36-20N. | 139-00 E. |
| Jeruſalem, | Paleſtine, | Turkey, | Aſia | 31-55N. | 35-25 E. |
| Immer Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-10 S. | 169-51 E. |
| Ingolſtadt, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-45N. | 11-27 E. |
| St. John's To. | Antigua, | Leeward Iſles, | N. Amer. | 17-04N. | 62-04 E. |
| St. John's To. | Newfoundland | North | America | 47 32N. | 52-21W. |
| St. Joſeph's, | California, | Mexico, | N. Amer. | 23-03N. | 109-37W. |
| Irraname Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-31 S. | 170-26 E. |
| Iſlamabad, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 22-20N. | 91-50 E. |
| Iſle of Pines, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 22-38 S. | 167-43 E. |
| ISPAHAN, | Irac Agem, | Perſia, | Aſia | 32-25N. | 52-55 E. |
| Judda, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Aſia | 21-29N. | 49-27 E. |
| Juthia, | Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 14-18N. | 100-55 E. |
| Inverneſs, | Inverneſsſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-33N. | 4-02W. |
| Ivica Iſle, | Mediterr. Sea, | Italy, | Europe | 38-50N. | 1-40 E. |

Iſthmus of Suez joins Africa to Aſia.
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
——— of Panama, joins North and South America.
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Aſia.
Iriſh Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coaſt of India, Aſia.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| KAmtſchatka, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 57-10N. | 163-00 E. |
| Kedgere, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-48N. | 88-55 E. |
| Kelſo, | Roxboroughſ. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38N. | 02-12W. |
| Kilmarnock, | Airſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38N. | 00-30W. |
| Kinſale, | Munſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-32N. | 08-20W. |
| KINGSTON, | Jamaica, | Weſt India, | America | 18-15N. | 76-38W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kiow, | Ukraine, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 50-30N. | 31-12 E. |
| Kola, | Lapland, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 68-52N. | 33-13 E. |
| Koningſberg, | Pruſſia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-43N. | 21-35 E. |
| Lancaſter, | Lancaſhire, | England, | Europe | 54-05N. | 02-55 E. |
| Levantſea | Coaſt of | Syria, | Aſia | Mediterranean ſea. | |
| Laguna, | Teneriffe, | Canaries, | A. Ocean | 28-28N. | 16-13W. |
| Landau, | Alſace, | France, | Europe | 49-11N. | 08-02 E. |
| Landſcroon, | Schonen, | Sweden, | Europe | 55-52N. | 12-51 E. |
| Lauſanne, | Cant. of Vaud. | Switzerland, | Europe | 46-31N. | 06-50 E. |
| Leeds, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-48N. | 01-29W. |
| Leiceſter, | Leiceſterſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-38N. | 01-03W. |
| Leipſic, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-19N. | 12-25 E. |
| Leper's Iſland, | S. Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 15-23 S. | 168-03 E. |
| Leſkard, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-26N. | 04-36W. |
| Leſparre, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 45-18N. | 00-52W. |
| Leyden, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-10N. | 04-32 E. |
| Leith, | Edinburghſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 03-00W. |
| Lahor, | Lahor, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 32-40N. | 75-30 E. |
| Linlithgow, | Linlithgowſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-56N. | 03-30W. |
| Lincoln, | Lincolnſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-15N. | 00-27W. |
| Lima, | Peru, | South | America | 12-01 S. | 76-44W. |
| Liege, | Biſh. of Liege, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-37N. | 05-40 E. |
| Limoges, | Limoges, | France, | Europe | 45-49N. | 01-20 E. |
| Lintz, | Auſtria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-16N. | 13-57 E. |
| Liſle, | Fren. Flanders | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-37N. | 03-09 E. |
| Liſbon, | Eſtremadura, | Portugal, | Europe | 38-42N. | 09-04W. |
| Lizard Point, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 49-57N. | 05-10W. |
| Louiſburg, | C. Breton Iſle, | North | America | 45-53N. | 59-48W. |
| Limerick, | Limerickſhire, | Ireland, | Europe | 52-35N. | 08-48W. |
| Litchfield, | Staffordſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-43N. | 01-04W. |
| Loretto, | Pope's Territ. | Italy, | Europe | 43-15N. | 14-15 E. |
| LONDON, | Middleſex, | England, | Europe | 51-31N. | 1ſt Merid. |
| Londonderry, | Londonderry, | Ireland, | Europe | 50-00N. | 07-40W. |
| Louveau, | Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 12-42N. | 100-56 E. |
| Louvain, | Auſtr. Brabant | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-53N. | 04-49 E. |
| Lubec, | Holſtein, | Germany, | Europe | 54-00N. | 11-40 E. |
| St. Lucia Iſle, | Windward Iſles | Weſt Indies, | N. Amer. | 13-24N. | 60-46W. |
| Lunden, | Gothland, | Sweden, | Europe | 55-41N. | 13-26 E. |
| Luneville, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 48-35N. | 06-35 E. |
| Luxemburg, | Luxemburg, | Netherlands, | Europe | 49-37N. | 06-16 E. |
| Lyons, | Lyons, | France, | Europe | 45-45N. | 04-54 E. |
| Macao, | Canton, | China, | Aſia | 22-12N. | 113-51 E. |
| Macaſſar, | Celebes Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 05-09 S. | 119-53 E. |
| Madeira, Funchal, | Atlantic | Ocean, | Africa | 32-37N. | 17-01W. |
| Madras, | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 13-04N. | 80-33 E. |
| MADRID, | New Caſtile, | Spain, | Europe | 40-25N. | 03-20 E. |
| Magdalena Iſle | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 10 25 S. | 138-44W. |
| Mahon Port, | Minorca, | Mediterr. ſea, | Europe | 39-50N. | 03-53 E. |
| Majorca, | Iſle, | Mediterr. ſea, | Europe | 39-35N. | 02-34 E. |
| Malacca, | Malacca, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 02-12N. | 102-10 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Malines, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-01N. | 04-33 E. |
| Mallicola (Isle) | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-15N. | 167-44 E. |
| St. Maloes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-38N. | 01-56W. |
| Malta Isle, | Mediterranean | Sea, | Africa | 35-54N. | 14-33 E. |
| Manilla, | Luconia Philip. Isles, | East India, | Asia | 14-36N. | 120-58 E. |
| MANTUA, | Mantua, | Italy, | Europe | 45-20N. | 10-47 E. |
| Maregalante Isle, | Atlantic | Ocean, | S. Amer. | 15-55N. | 61-06W. |
| Marseilles, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-17N. | 05-27 E. |
| St. Martha, | St. Martha, | Terra Firma, | America | 11-26N. | 73-59W. |
| St. Martin's Isle | Caribean Isles, | West India, | America | 18-04N. | 62-57W. |
| Martinico Isle, | Caribean Isles, | West India, | America | 14-44N. | 61-16W. |
| St. Mary's Isle, | Scilly Isles, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 49-57N. | 06-38W. |
| St. Mary's To. | Azores, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 36-56N. | 25-24W. |
| Maikelyne Isles | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-32 S. | 168-04 E. |
| Mauritius, | Indian | Ocean, | Africa | 20-09 S. | 57-34 E. |
| Maurua Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-25 S. | 152-37 E. |
| Mayence, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-54N. | 08-25 E. |
| Mayo Isle, | Cape Verd, | Atlantic Ocean | Africa | 15-10N. | 23-00W. |
| Meaux, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 48-57N. | 02-57 E. |
| Medina, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 25-00N. | 39-33 E. |
| Mecca, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 21-45N. | 41-00 E. |
| Mediterr. sea, | between | Europe and | Africa | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Mequinez, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 34-30N. | 06-00 E. |
| MESSINA, | Sicily Island, | Italy, | Europe | 38-30N. | 15-40 E. |
| Mergui, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 12-12N. | 98-13 E. |
| Mexico, | Mexico, | North | America | 19-54N. | 100-00W. |
| Milford Haven | Pembrokeshire | Wales, | Europe | 51-45N. | 05-15W. |
| Miatea Isles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 17-52 S. | 148-01W. |
| St. Michael's Isle, | Azores, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 37-47N. | 25-37W. |
| Middleburg Isl. | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 21-20 S. | 174-29W. |
| MILAN, | Milanese, | Italy, | Europe | 45-25N. | 09-30 E. |
| Mocha, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 13-40N. | 43-50 E. |
| MODENA, | Modena, | Italy, | Europe | 44-34N. | 11-17 E. |
| Montreal, | Canada, | North | America | 45-35N. | 73-11W. |
| Montpelier, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-36N. | 03-37 E. |
| Montrose, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-34N. | 02-20W. |
| Montague Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 17-26 S. | 168-36 E. |
| Montserrat Isle | Caribean Isles, | West India, | America | 16-47N. | 62-12W. |
| MOROCCO, | Morocco, | Barbary, | Africa | 30-32N. | 06-10W. |
| Moscow, | Moscow, | Russia, | Europe | 55-45N. | 37-50 E. |
| Munich, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-09N. | 11-35 E. |
| Munster, | Westphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 52-00N. | 07-10 E. |
| Narva, | Livonia, | Russia, | Europe | 59-00N. | 27-35 E. |
| Nanci, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 48-41N. | 06-16 E. |
| Nanking, | Kiangan, | China, | Asia | 32-00N. | 118-30 E. |
| Namur, | Namur, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-28N. | 04-49 E. |
| Nangasachi, | Japan, | N. Pacific Oc. | Asia | 32-39N. | 128-51 E. |
| Naples, | Naples, | Italy, | Europe | 40-50N. | 14-18 E. |
| Nantes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 47-13N. | 01-28W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nice, | Piedmont, | Italy, | Europe | 43-41N. | 07-22 E. |
| Newport, | Rhode Iſland, | North | America | 41-35N. | 71-06W. |
| Nieuport, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-07N. | 02-50 E. |
| New York, | New York, | North | America | 40-40N. | 74-00W. |
| Nineveh, | Curdiſtan, | Turkey, | Aſia | 36-00N. | 45-00 E. |
| St. Nich. Mole | Hiſpaniola, | Weſt India, | America | 19-49N. | 73-24W. |
| Newcaſtle, | Northumberl. | England, | Europe | 55-03N. | 01-24W. |
| Ningpo, | Chekiang, | China, | Aſia | 29-57N. | 120-23 E. |
| Norfolk Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 29-01 S. | 168-15 E. |
| Noriton, | Pennſylvania, | North | America | 40-09N. | 75-18W. |
| North Cape, | Wardhus, | Lapland, | Europe | 71-10N. | 26-02 E. |
| Nottingham, | Nottinghamſh. | England, | Europe | 53-00N. | 01-06W. |
| Northampton, | Northamptſh. | England, | Europe | 52-15N. | 00-55W. |
| Norwich, | Norfolk, | England, | Europe | 52-40N. | 01-25 E. |
| Nuremberg, | Franconia, | Germany, | Europe | 49-27N. | 11-12 E. |
| Olmutz, | Moravia, | Bohemia, | Europe | 49-30N. | 16-45 E. |
| Ochotſkoi | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 59-20N. | 143-17 E. |
| Ohevahoa Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 09-40S. | 138-56W. |
| Ohitahoo Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 09-55 S. | 139-01W. |
| Oleron Iſle, | Saintonge, | France, | Europe | 46-02N. | 01-20W. |
| Olympia, | Greece, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-30N. | 22-00 E. |
| Olinde, | Braſil, | South | America | 08-13 S. | 35-00W. |
| Onateayo Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 09-58 S. | 138-40W. |
| Oporto, | Duoro, | Portugal, | Europe | 41-10N. | 08-22W. |
| Orenburg, | Tartary, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 51-46N. | 55-14 E. |
| Orleans, | Orleannois, | France, | Europe | 47-54N. | 01-59 E. |
| Orleans (New) | Louiſiana, | North | America | 29-57N. | 89-53W. |
| Orotava, | Teneriffe, | Atlantic Ocean | Africa | 28-23N. | 16-19W. |
| Ormus, | Ormicos Iſle, | Perſia, | Aſia | 26-50N. | 57-00 E. |
| Orſk, | Tartary, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 51-12N. | 58-37 E. |
| Oran, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-30N. | 00-05 E. |
| Oſnaburg Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 17-52 S. | 148-01 E. |
| Oſtend, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-13N. | 03-00 E. |
| Oxford Obſervatory, | Oxfordſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-45N. | 01-10W. |
| St. Omer's, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-44N. | 02-19 E. |
| l'Orient (Port) | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 47-45N. | 05-20W. |
| Pacific or Or. Ocean, | between | Aſia and | America | | |
| Padua, | Paduano, | Italy, | Europe | 45-22N. | 12-00 E. |
| Paiſley, | Renfrewſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48N. | 04-08W. |
| PALERMO, | Sicily Iſle, | Italy, | Europe | 38-30N. | 13-43 E. |
| Palmyra, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 33-00N. | 39-00 E. |
| Panama, | Darien, | Terra Firma, | S. Amer. | 08-47N. | 80-06W. |
| Palliſer's Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-38 S. | 146-25W. |
| Palma Iſle, | Canaries, | Atlantic Ocean | Africa | 28-36N. | 17-45W. |
| Palmerſton's I. | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 18-00 S. | 162-52W. |
| Paoom Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-30 S. | 168-33 E. |
| PARIS Obſervatory, | Iſle of France, | France, | Europe | 48-50N. | 2-25 E. |
| Patrixfiord, | Iceland, | N. Atl. Ocean | Europe | 65-35N. | 14-05W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Parma, | Parmaſan, | Italy, | Europe | 44-45N. | 10-51 E. |
| Patna, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 25-45N. | 83-00 E. |
| Pau, | Bearn, | France, | Europe | 43-15N. | 0-04W. |
| St. Paul's Iſle, | South | Indian Ocean, | Africa | 37-51 S. | 77-53 E. |
| Pegu, | Pegu, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 17-00N. | 97-00 E. |
| Peking, | Petchi-li, | China, | Aſia | 39-54N. | 116-29 E. |
| St. Peter's Fort | Martinico, | W. India, | N. Amer. | 14-44N. | 61-16W. |
| Pembroke, | Pembrokeſhire | Wales, | Europe | 51-45N. | 4-50W. |
| Penzance, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 6-00W. |
| PENSACOLA, | Weſt Florida, | North | America | 30-22N. | 87-20W. |
| Periguex, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 45-11N. | 0-48 E. |
| Perinaldi, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 43-53N. | 7-45 E. |
| Perth, | Perthſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-22N. | 3-12W. |
| Perth-amboy, | New York, | North | America | 40-30N. | 74-20W. |
| St. Peter's Iſle, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | America | 46-46N. | 56-12W. |
| Perſepolis, | Irac Agem, | Perſia, | Aſia | 30-30N. | 54-00 E. |
| Petropawloſkoi | Kamtſchatka, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 53-01N. | 158-40 E. |
| PETERSBURG, | Ingria, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 59-56N. | 30-24 E. |
| Philadelphia, | Pennſylvania, | North | America | 39-56N. | 75-09W. |
| St. Philip's Fort, | Minorca, | Mediterr. Sea, | Europe | 39-50N. | 3-53 E. |
| Pickerſgill Iſle, | South | Atlant. Ocean | America | 54-42 S. | 36-53W. |
| Pico, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-28N. | 28-21W. |
| Pines, Iſle of, | N. Caledonia, | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 22-38 S. | 167-43 E. |
| Piſa, | Tuſcany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-43N. | 10-17 E. |
| Placentia, | Newfoundland Iſle | North | America | 47-26N. | 55-00W. |
| Plymouth, | Devonſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-22N. | 4-10W. |
| Plymouth, | New England, | North | America | 41-48N. | 70-25W. |
| Pollingen, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 47-48N. | 10-48 E. |
| Pondicherry, | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 11-41N. | 79-57 E. |
| Ponoi, | Lapland, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 67-06N. | 36-28 E. |
| Porto Bello, | Terra Firma, | South | America | 9-33N. | 79-45W. |
| Porro Sancto Iſle, | Madeira, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 32-58N. | 16-20W. |
| Port Royal, | Jamaica, | Weſt India, | America | 18-00N. | 76-40W. |
| Port Royal, | Martinico, | Weſt India, | America | 14-35N. | 61-04W. |
| Portſmouth Town, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-47N. | 01-01W. |
| — Academy, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-48N. | 1-01W. |
| Portſmouth, | New England, | North | America | 43-10N. | 70-20W. |
| Portland Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 39-25 S. | 178-17 E. |
| Portland Iſle, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 63-22N. | 18-49W. |
| Prague, | | Bohemia, | Europe | 50-04N. | 14-50 E. |
| Prince of Wales Fort, | New N. Wales, | North | America | 58-47N. | 94-02W. |
| Potoſi, | Peru, | South | America | 21-00 S. | 77-00W. |
| Providence, | New England, | North | America | 41-50N. | 71-21W. |
| Preſton, | Lancaſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 2-50W. |
| Preſburg, | Upper | Hungary, | Europe | 48-20N. | 17-30W. |
| Pulo Candor Iſle, | Indian Ocean, | Eaſt Indies, | Aſia | 8-40N. | 107-25 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pulo Timor Iſle, | Gulf of Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 3-00N. | 104-30 E. |
| Pyleſtaart Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 22-25 S. | 175-36W. |
| QUebec, | Canada, | North | America | 46-55N. | 69-48W. |
| St. Quintin, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 49-50N. | 3-22 E. |
| Quito, | Peru, | South | America | 0-13S. | 77-50W. |
| Queen Charlotte's Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 10-11 S. | 164-35 E. |
| RAmhead, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-18N. | 4-15W. |
| Raguſa, | Dalmatia, | Venice, | Europe | 42-45N. | 18-25 E. |
| Ratiſbon, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-56N. | 12-05 E. |
| Ré Iſle, | Aunis, | France, | Europe | 46-14N. | 1-29W. |
| Recif, | Braſil, | South | America | 8-10 S. | 35-30W. |
| Rennes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-06N. | 1-36W. |
| ReſolutionIſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 17-23S. | 141-40W. |
| Rheims, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 49-14N. | 4-07 E. |
| Rhodes, | Rhode iſland, | Levant ſea, | Aſia | 36-20N. | 28-00 E. |
| Riga, | Livonia, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 56-55N. | 24-00 E. |
| Rimini, | Romagna, | Italy, | Europe | 44-03N. | 12-39 E. |
| Rochelle, | Aunis, | France, | Europe | 46-09N. | 1-04W. |
| Rochfort, | Saintonge, | France, | Europe | 46-02N. | 0-[illegible]3W. |
| Rock of Liſbon, | Mouth of Tagus river, | Portugal, | Europe | 38-45N. | 9-30W. |
| Rodez, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-21N. | 2-39 E. |
| RodriguesIſle, | South | Indian Ocean, | Africa | 10-40N. | 63-15 E. |
| Rome, (St. Peter's) | Pope's Territory, | Italy, | Europe | 41-53N. | 12-34 E. |
| Rotterdam, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-56N. | 4-53 E. |
| RotterdamIſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 20-16N. | 174-25W. |
| Rouen, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-26N. | 1-00W. |
| ST. Auguſtin, | Eaſt Florida, | North | America | 29-45N. | 81-12W. |
| — Domingo, | Carib. ſea, | Weſt India, | America | 18-20N. | 70-00W. |
| — Jago, | Chili, | South | America | 34-00 S. | 77-00W. |
| — Salvador, | Braſil, | South | America | 11-58 S. | 38-00W. |
| Saba Iſle, | Carib. ſea, | Weſt India, | America | 17-39N. | 63-12W. |
| Sagan, | Sileſia, | Germany, | Europe | 51-42N. | 15-27 E. |
| Sal Iſle, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 16-38N. | 22-51W. |
| Salonichi, | Macedonia, | Turkey, | Europe | 40-41N. | 23 13 E. |
| Salvage Iſles, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 30-00N. | 15-49W. |
| Samana, | Hiſpaniola, | Weſt India, | America | 19-15N. | 69-11W. |
| Samarcand, | Uſbec, | Tartary, | Aſia | 40-40N. | 69-00 E. |
| Salisbury, | Wiltſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-00N. | 1-45W. |
| Santa Cruz, | Teneriffe, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-27N. | 16-11W. |
| Sandwich Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 17-45 S. | 168-38 E. |
| Santa Fé, | New Mexico, | North | America | 36-00N. | 101-00W. |
| Savannah, | Georgia, | North | America | 31-55N. | 80-20W. |
| Saunders's Iſle, | South Georgia | S. Atlantic Ocean, | S. America | 58-00 S. | 26-53W. |
| Savage Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-02 S. | 169-25W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sayd, or Thebes, | Upper | Egypt, | Africa | 27-00N. | 32-20 E. |
| Samaria Ruins, | Holy Land, | Turkey, | Asia | 32-40N. | 38-00 E. |
| St. George's Channel, | between | England and Ireland, | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Scarborough, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 54-18N. | 0-10W. |
| Scone, | Perthshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-24N. | 3-10W. |
| Schwezingen, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-23N. | 8-45 E. |
| Sea of Asoph, | Little Tartary, | Europe and | Asia | | |
| — Marmora, | Turkey in | Europe and | Asia | Black Sea. | |
| — Ochotsk, | between | Siberia, and Kamtschatka, | Asia, | N. Pacif. Ocean | |
| — Yellow, | betw. Eastern | Tartary, China, and Corea, | | N. Pacif. Ocean | |
| Sedan, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 49-42N. | 5-02 E. |
| Senegal, | | Negroland, | Africa | 15-53N. | 16-26W. |
| Shepherd's Isles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-58 S. | 168-47 E. |
| Siam, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 14-18N. | 100-55 E. |
| Si-gham-fu, | Chensi, | China, | Asia | 34-16N. | 108-48 E. |
| Sisteron, | Dauphiné, | France, | Europe | 44-11N. | 6-01W. |
| Shrewsbury, | Shropshire, | England, | Europe | 52-43N. | 2-46W. |
| Shields (South) | Durham, | England, | Europe | 55-02N. | 1-15 E. |
| Sheerness, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-25N. | 0-50 E. |
| Seville, | Andalusia, | Spain, | Europe | 37-15N. | 6-05W. |
| Sidon, | Holy Land, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-33N. | 36-15 E. |
| Smyrna, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 38-28N. | 27-24 E. |
| Southampton, | Hampshire, | England, | Europe | 50-55N. | 1-25W. |
| Sombavera Isles, | Carib. Sea, | West India, | N. America | 18-38 N. | 63-32W. |
| Soolo Isle, | Philip. Isles, | East India, | Asia | 5-57N. | 121-20E. |
| Spaw, | Liege, | Germany, | Europe | 50-30N. | 5-40 E. |
| Sound, | between | Denmark and Sweden, | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| Stafford, | Staffordshire, | England, | Europe | 52-50N. | 2-00W. |
| Sterling, | Sterlingshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-10N. | 3-50W. |
| Stralsund, | Pomerania, | Germany, | Europe | 54-23N. | 13-22 E. |
| Strasburgh, | Alsace, | France, | Europe | 48-34N. | 7-46 E. |
| Stockholm, | Upland, | Sweden, | Europe | 59-20N. | 18-08 E. |

Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.
Straits of Magellan, between Tierra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America.
Straits of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Straumness, | Iceland, | N. Atlantic Ocean, | Europe | 65-39N. | 24-24W. |
| Suez, | Suez, | Egypt, | Africa | 29-50N. | 33-27 E. |
| Sunderland, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-55N. | 1-10W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Surinam, | Surinam, | South | America | 6-00N. | 55-30W. |
| Sultz, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 47-53N. | 7-09W. |
| Surat, | Guzerat, | East India, | Asia | 21-10N. | 72-27 E. |
| Syracuse, | Sicily Isle, | Italy, | Europe | 36-58N. | 15-05 E. |
| TAble Island, | NewHebrides, | South Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 15-38 S. | 167-12 E. |
| Tanna, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-32 S. | 169-46 E. |
| Tanjour, | Tanjour, | East India, | Asia | 11-27N. | 79-07 E. |
| Tauris, | Aderbeitzan, | Persia, | Asia | 38-20N. | 46-30 E. |
| Taoukaa Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 14-30 S. | 145-04W. |
| Temontengis, | Soloo, | East India, | Asia | 5-57N. | 120-58 E. |
| Teneriffe Peak, | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-12N. | 16-24W. |
| Tercera, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-45N. | 27-01W. |
| St. Thomas's Isle, | Virgin Isles, | West India, | America | 18-21N. | 64-46W. |
| Timor, S. W. Point, | | East India, | Asia | 10-23 S. | 124-04 E. |
| Timorland S. Point, | | East India, | Asia | 8-15 S. | 131-59 E. |
| Thorn, | Regal Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 52-56N. | 19-00W. |
| Tetuan, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 35-40N. | 5-18W. |
| Teflis, | Georgia, | Persia, | Asia | 43-30N. | 47-00 E. |
| Tobolski, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 58-12N. | 68-17 E. |
| Tomsk, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 56-29N. | 85-04 E. |
| Toulon, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-07N. | 6-01 E. |
| Toledo, | New Castile, | Spain, | Europe | 39-50N. | 3-25 E. |
| Tonga Tabu Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 21-09 S. | 174-41W. |
| Trapesond, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 41-50N. | 40-30 E. |
| Trent, | Trent, | Germany, | Europe | 46-05N. | 11-02 E. |
| Troy Ruins, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 39-30N. | 26-30 E. |
| Tornea, | Bothnia, | Sweden, | Europe | 65-50N. | 24-17 E. |
| Tripoli, | Tripoli, | Barbary, | Africa | 32-53N. | 13-12 E. |
| Tripoli, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 34-30N. | 36-15 E. |
| Tunis, | Tunis, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-47N. | 10-00 E. |
| Turin, | Piedmont, | Italy, | Europe | 45-05N. | 7-45 E. |
| Tyre, | Palestine, | Turkey, | Asia | 32-32N. | 36-00 E. |
| Turtle Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-48 S. | 178-02W. |
| Tyrnaw, | Trentschin, | Hungary, | Europe | 48-23N. | 17-38 E. |
| ULiatea, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-45 S. | 151-26W. |
| Upsal, | Upland, | Sweden, | Europe | 59-51N. | 17-47 E. |
| Uraniberg, | Huen Isle, | Denmark, | Europe | 55-54N. | 12-57 E. |
| Ushant Isle, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-28N. | 4-59W. |
| Utrecht, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-07N. | 5-00 E. |
| Venice, | Venice, | Italy, | Europe | 45-26N. | 11-59 E. |
| Vera Cruz, | Mexico, | North | America | 19-12N. | 97-25W. |
| Verona, | Veronese, | Italy, | Europe | 45-26N. | 11-23 E. |
| Versailles, | Isle of France, | France, | Europe | 48-48N. | 2-12 E. |
| VIENNA (Ob.) | Austria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-12N. | 16-22 E. |
| Vigo, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 42-14N. | 8-23W. |
| Vintimiglia, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 43-53N. | 7-42 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Virgin Gorda, | Virgin Iſles, | Weſt India, | America | 18-18N. | 63-59W. |
| Wurtzburg, | Franconia, | Germany, | Europe | 49-46N. | 10-18 E. |
| Wakefield, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-41N. | 1-28W. |
| Pr. of Wales Fort, | NewN. Wales, | North | America | 58-47N. | 94-02W. |
| Wardhus, | Norwegian Lapland, | Lapland, | Europe | 70-22N. | 31-11 E. |
| Warſaw, | Maſſovia | Poland, | Europe | 52-14N. | 21-05 E. |
| Weſtman Iſles, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 63-20N. | 20-22W. |
| Whitſuntide Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-44 S. | 168-25 E. |
| Warwick, | Warwickſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-18N. | 1-32W. |
| Waterford, | Munſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 52-12N. | 7-16W. |
| Whitehaven, | Cumberland, | England, | Europe | 54-38N. | 3-36W. |
| Williamſburg, | Virginia, | North | America | 37-12N. | 76-48W. |
| Wells, | Somerſetſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-12N. | 2-40W. |
| Wincheſter, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-06N. | 1-15W. |
| Worms, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-38N. | 8-05 E. |
| Worceſter, | Worceſterſhire | England, | Europe | 52-09N. | 1-55W. |
| Willes's Iſles, | SouthGeorgia, | Atlant. Ocean, | America | 54-00 S. | 38-24W. |
| Wilna, | Lithuania, | Poland, | Europe | 54-41N. | 25-32 E. |
| Wittenburg, | UpperSaxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-49N. | 12-46 E. |
| Wologda, | Wologda, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 59-19N. | 41-50 E. |
| Woſlak, | | Ruſſia, | Europe | 61-15N. | |
| YArmouth | Norfolk, | England, | Europe | 52-45N. | 1-48 E. |
| York, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-59N. | 1-01W. |
| Yorkminſter, | Terra del Fuego, | South | America | 55-26N. | 70-03W. |

Greenwich Obſerv. Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28′ 40″ N. 0° 5′ 37″ E. of St. Paul's, London.

A

# MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE;

The moſt COPIOUS and AUTHENTIC that ever was publiſhed of the preſent State of the REAL and IMAGINARY MONIES of the WORLD.

Divided into four Parts, viz.

## EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are ſubdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the moſt capital Places, the Species whereof are inſerted, ſhewing how the Monies are reckoned by the reſpective Nations; and the Figures ſtanding againſt the Denomination of each foreign Piece is the Engliſh intrinſic Value thereof, according to the beſt Aſſays made at the Mint of the TOWER of LONDON.

## EXPLANATION.

By real Money is underſtood an Effective Specie, repreſenting in itſelf the value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made uſe of in keeping Accounts, ſignifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be repreſented but by ſeveral other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All Fractions in the Value Engliſh are Parts of a Penny.

= This Mark ſignifies, *is*, *make*, or *equal to*.

Note, for all the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Daniſh Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the Weſt Indies, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

## ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

*London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c.*
*Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Aberdeen, &c.*

Europe, Northern Parts.

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Farthing | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | $0\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 2 Farthings | = | a Halfpenny | — | 0 | 0 | $0\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 2 Halfpence | = | a Penny | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Pence | = | a Groat | — | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 6 Pence | = | a Half Shilling | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 12 Pence | = | a Shilling | — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 Shillings | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 20 Shillings | = | a * Pound Sterling | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 21 Shillings | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 |

## IRELAND.

*Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Farthing | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Farthings | = | a Halfpenny | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Halfpence | = | * a Penny | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6½ Pence | = | a Half Shilling | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 12 Pence | = | * a Shilling Iriſh | | 0 | 0 | 11 |
| 13 Pence | = | a Shilling | — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 65 Pence | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 20 Shillings | = | * a Pound Iriſh | — | 0 | 18 | 5 |
| 22¾ Shillings | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 |

## FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

*Ghent, Oſtend, &c. Antwerp, Bruſſels, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Pening | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Peningens | = | an Urche | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Peningens | = | * a Grote | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Grotes | = | a Petard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Petards | = | * a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 7 Petards | = | a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 40 Grotes | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| 17½ Scalins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 3 |
| 240 Grotes | = | * a Pound Flem. | — | 0 | 9 | 0 |

## HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

*Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * Pening | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Peningens | = | * a Grote | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Grotes | = | a Stiver | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 6 Stivers | = | a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 20 Stivers | = | a Guilder | — | 0 | 1 | 9 |
| 2 Florins 10 Stivers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 60 Stivers | = | a Dry Guilder | — | 0 | 5 | 4 |
| 3 Florins 3 Stivers | = | a Silver Ducattoon | | 0 | 5 | 8 |
| 6 Guilders | = | * a Pound Flem. | | 0 | 10 | 6 |
| 20 Florins | = | a Gold Ducat, or Ducattoon | — | 1 | 16 | 0 |
| 15 Florins | = | a Ducattoon, another ſort, called a Sovereign | | 1 | 7 | 0 |

## HAMBURG, *Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.*

Germany

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Tryling | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Trylings | = | * a Sexling | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Sexlings | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Fenings | = | a Shilling Lub. | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 16 Shillings | = | * a Marc | — | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| 2 Marcs | = | a Sletch dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| 3 Marcs | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 4 Marcs | = | a Silver Ducattoon | | 0 | 6 | 0 |
| 120 Shillings | = | * a Pound Flem. | | 0 | 11 | 3 |

## HANOVER, *Lunenburg, Zell, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Fening | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Fenings | = | a Dreyer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Fenings | = | a Marien | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 12 Fenings | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 8 Groſhen | = | a Half Gulden | | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 16 Groſhen | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 24 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 32 Groſhen | = | a Double Gulden | | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 4 Guldens | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 2 |

## SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

*Dreſden, Leipſic, &c. Wiſmar, Keil, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * An Heller | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Hellers | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Hellers | = | a Dreyer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 Hellers | = | a Marien | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 12 Fenings | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 16 Groſhen | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 24 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 32 Groſhen | = | a Specie Dollar | | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 4 Goulds | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.

*Berlin, Potſdam, &c. Stetin, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Denier | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 Deniers | = | a Polchen | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 18 Deniers | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Polchens | = | an Abraſs | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Groſhen | = | * a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| 30 Groſhen | = | a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 90 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 108 Groſhen | = | an Albertus | — | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 8 Florins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## COLOGN, *Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munſter, Paderborn, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Dute | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Dutes | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Cruitzers | = | an Albus | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Dutes | = | a Stiver | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Stivers | = | a Plapert | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 4 Plaperts | = | a Copſtuck | — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 40 Stivers | = | a Guilder | — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 2 Guilders | = | a Hard Dollar | | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 2 Guilders | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

## BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

*Prague, Breſlau, Preſburgh, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Fenings | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Cruitzers | = | a White Groſh | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | | 0 | 4 | |
| 4 Goulds | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

*Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Augſburg, Blenheim, &c.*

GERMANY.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 14 Fenings | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 15 Batzen | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Florins | = | a Specie-dollar | | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 60 Batzen | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## FRANCONIA, *Franckfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | a Keyſer Groſh | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 15 Cruitzers | = | an Ort Gold | | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 240 Cruitzers | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

*Cracow, Warſaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningſberg, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Shelon | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Shelons | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 Groſhen | = | a Couſtic | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 3 Couſtics | = | a Tinſe | — | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 18 Groſhen | = | an Ort | — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 30 Groſhen | = | a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 90 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 8 Florins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 |
| 5 Rix-dollars | = | a Frederic d'Or | — | 0 | 17 | 6 |

## LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

| | | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Blacken | — | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Blackens | = | a Groſh | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 Blackens | = | a Vording | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Groſhen | = | a Whiten | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Groſhen | = | a Marc | — | | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 30 Groſhen | = | a Florin | — | | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 90 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 108 Groſhen | = | an Albertus | — | | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 64 Whitens | = | a Copper-plate Dollar | | | 0 | 5 | 0 |

## DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

*Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.*

| | | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Skilling | — | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Skillings | = | a Duggen | — | | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 16 Skillings | = | * a Marc | — | | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| 20 Skillings | = | a Rix-marc | — | | 0 | 0 | 11 |
| 24 Skillings | = | a Rix ort | — | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 4 Marcs | = | a Crown | — | | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| 6 Marcs | = | a Rix-dollar | — | | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 11 Marcs | = | a Ducat | — | | 0 | 8 | 3 |
| 14 Marcs | = | a Hatt Ducat | — | | 0 | 10 | 6 |

## SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

*Stockholm, Upſal, &c. Thorn, &c.*

| | | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Runſtick | — | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Runſticks | = | a Stiver | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Runſticks | = | a Copper Marc | — | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 Copper Marcs | = | a Silver Marc | — | | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 4 Copper Marcs | = | a Copper Dollar | — | | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 9 Copper Marcs | = | a Caroline | — | | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 3 Copper Dollars | = | a Silver Dollar | — | | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| 3 Silver Dollars | = | a Rix-dollar | — | | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 2 Rix-dollars | = | a Ducat | — | | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

*Peterſburg, Archangel, &c. Moſcow, &c.*

| | | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Poluſca | — | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Poluſcas | = | a Denuſca | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Denuſcas | = | * a Copec | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Copecs | = | an Altin | — | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 10 Copecs | = | a Grievener | — | | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 25 Copecs | = | a Polpotin | — | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 50 Copecs | = | a Poltin | — | | 0 | 2 | 3 |
| 100 Copecs | = | a Ruble | — | | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 2 Rubles | = | a Xervonitz | — | | 0 | 9 | 0 |

## BASIL. *Zurich, Zug, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Rap | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Rapen | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Fenings | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 15 Fenings | = | a Coarse Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 18 Fenings | = | a Good Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 50 Cruitzers | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 108 Cruitzers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |

## ST. GALL. *Appensal, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| An Heller | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Hellers | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Fenings | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Coarse Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 5 Cruitzers | = | a Good Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 102 Cruitzers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 3 |

## BERN. *Lucerne, Neufchatel, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Deniers | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Plapert | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 5 Cruitzers | = | a Gros | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 6 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| 75 Cruitzers | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 135 Cruitzers | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |

## GENEVA. *Pekay, Bonne, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | —— | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Deniers | = | a Denier current | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Small Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers current | = | a Sol current | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Small Sols | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 20 Sols current | = | * a Livre current | — | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| 10 ½ Florins | = | a Patacoon | — | 0 | 3 | 11 |
| 15 ¾ Florins | = | a Croisade | — | 0 | 5 | 10 |
| 24 Florins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 0 |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

*Liſle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 Deniers | = | * a Patard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 Patards | = | * a Piette | — | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| 20 Sols | = | a Livre Tournois | | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| 20 Patards | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 60 Sols | = | an Ecu of Ex. | | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 10½ Livres | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 3 |
| 24 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |

*Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quintin, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 Deniers | = | * a Patard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 Sols | = | * a Piette | — | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre Tournois | | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| 3 Livres | = | an Ecu of Ex. | | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 24 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 24 Livres | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 30⅜ Livres | = | a Moeda | — | 1 | 7 | 0 |

*Paris, Lyons, Marſeilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Deniers | = | a Liard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Liards | = | a Dardene | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre Tournois | | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| 60 Sols | = | an Ecu of Ex. | | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 6 Livres | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 10 Livres | = | * a Piſtole | — | 0 | 8 | 4 |
| 24 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |

PORTUGAL. *Liſbon, Oporto, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Re | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 Rez | = | a Half Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Rez | = | a Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 5 Vintins | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 4 Teſtoons | = | a Cruſade of Ex. | — | 0 | 2 | 3 |
| 24 Vintins | = | a New Cruſade | — | 0 | 2 | 8 |
| 10 Teſtoons | = | * a Milre | — | 0 | 5 | 7 |
| 48 Teſtoons | = | a Moidore | — | 1 | 7 | 0 |
| 64 Teſtoons | = | a Joaneſe | — | 1 | 16 | 0 |

Madrid,

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

*Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate.*

| | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Maravedie | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 2 Maravedies | = | a Quartil — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 34 Maravedies | = | a Rial — | 0 | 0 | 5 | |
| 2 Rials | = | a Piſtarine — | 0 | 0 | 10 | |
| 8 Rials | = | * a Piaſtre of Ex. | 0 | 3 | 7 | |
| 10 Rials | = | a Dollar — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 375 Maravedies | = | * a Ducat of Ex. | 0 | 4 | 11 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 32 Rials | = | * a Piſtole of Ex. | 0 | 14 | 4 | |
| 36 Rials | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

*Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Maravedie | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 2 Maravedies | = | an Ochavo — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 4 Maravedies | = | a Quartil — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 34 Maravedies | = | * a Rial Velon | 0 | 0 | 2 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 15 Rials | = | * a Piaſtre of Ex. | 0 | 3 | 7 | |
| 512 Maravedies | = | a Piaſtre — | 0 | 3 | 7 | |
| 60 Rials | = | * a Piſtole of Ex. | 0 | 14 | 4 | |
| 2048 Maravedies | = | a Piſtole of Ex. | 0 | 14 | 4 | |
| 70 Rials | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

*Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Maravedie | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 16 Maravedies | = | a Soldo — | 0 | 0 | 3 | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 2 Soldos | = | a Rial Old Plate | 0 | 0 | 6 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 20 Soldos | = | * a Libra — | 0 | 5 | 7 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 24 Soldos | = | * a Ducat — | 0 | 6 | 9 | |
| 16 Soldos | = | * a Dollar — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 22 Soldos | = | * a Ducat — | 0 | 6 | 2 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 21 Soldos | = | * a Ducat — | 0 | 5 | 10 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 60 Soldos | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

ITALY.

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.*

CORSICA. *Baſtia, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 4 Soldi | = | a Chevalet — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 30 Soldi | = | a Teſtoon — | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5 Lires | = | a Croiſade — | 0 | 3 | 7 | |
| 115 Soldi | = | * a Pezzo of Ex. | 0 | 4 | 2 | |
| 6 Teſtoons | = | a Genouine — | 0 | 6 | 2 | |
| 20 Lires | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 14 | 4 | |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

## PIEDMONT, SAVOY, AND SARDINIA.

*Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Denari | = | a Quatrini | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Soldi | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| 6 Florins | = | a Scudi | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 7 Florins | = | a Ducattoon | — | 0 | 5 | 3 |
| 13 Lires | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 3 |
| 16 Lires | = | a Louis d'Or | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |

*Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Denari | = | a Quatrini | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 115 Soldi | = | a Scudi current | — | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 117 Soldi | = | * a Scudi of Ex. | — | 0 | 4 | 3 |
| 6 Lires | = | a Philip | — | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| 22 Lires | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 0 |
| 23 Lires | = | a Spaniſh Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 |

*Leghorn, Florence, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Denari | = | a Quatrini | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 Quatrini | = | a Craca | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Cracas | = | a Quilo | — | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 6 Lires | = | a Piaſtre of Ex. | — | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 7½ Lires | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 5 | 2 |
| 22 Lires | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 |

## ROME, *Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 Quatrini | = | a Bayoc | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Bayocs | = | a Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 10 Bayocs | = | a Stampt Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 24 Bayocs | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| 10 Julios | = | a Crown current | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 12 Julios | = | * a Crown ſtampt | — | 0 | 6 | 0 |
| 18 Julios | = | a Chequin | — | 0 | 9 | 0 |
| 31 Julios | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

## NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{2}{15}$ |
| 3 Quatrini | = | a Grain | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{2}{5}$ |
| 10 Grains | = | a Carlin | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | |
| 40 Quatrini | = | a Paulo | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 20 Grains | = | a Tarin | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 40 Grains | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | |
| 100 Grains | = | a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 23 Tarins | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 4 | |
| 25 Tarins | = | a Spaniſh Piſtole | | 1 | 16 | 9 | |

## SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Meſſina, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pichila | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{30}$ |
| 6 Pichili | = | a Grain | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{2}{15}$ |
| 8 Pichili | = | a Ponti | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{8}{90}$ |
| 10 Grains | = | a Carlin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{7}{12}$ |
| 20 Grains | = | a Tarin | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | $\frac{1}{15}$ |
| 6 Tarins | = | *a Florin of Ex. | | 0 | 1 | 6 | $\frac{2}{15}$ |
| 13 Tarins | = | a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 60 Carlins | = | • an Ounce | — | 0 | 7 | 8 | $\frac{4}{12}$ |
| 2 Ounces | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 4 | |

## *Bologna, Ravenna, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{10}$ |
| 6 Quatrini | = | a Bayoc | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{5}$ |
| 10 Bayocs | = | a Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Bayocs | = | *a Lire | — | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3 Julios | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 85 Bayocs | = | a Scudi of Ex. | | 0 | 4 | 3 | |
| 105 Bayocs | = | a Ducattoon | | 0 | 5 | 3 | |
| 100 Bayocs | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 31 Julios | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 | |

## VENICE. *Bergham, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Picoli | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{32}$ |
| 12 Picoli | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| $6\frac{1}{2}$ Soldi | = | *a Gros | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | $\frac{1}{6}$ |
| 18 Soldi | = | a Jule | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Soldi | = | *a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | $\frac{2}{3}$ |
| 3 Jules | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 124 Soldi | = | a Ducat current | | 0 | 3 | 5 | $\frac{2}{3}$ |
| 24 Gros | = | *a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 4 | 4 | |
| 17 Lires | = | a Chequin | — | 0 | 9 | 2 | |

TURKEY.

EUROPE. S. Parte.

## TURKEY. *Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Mangar | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 4 Mangars | = | an Aſper | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 3 Aſpers | = | a Parac | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5/4 |
| 5 Aſpers | = | a Beſtic | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | 5 |
| 10 Aſpers | = | an Oſtic | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Aſpers | = | a Solota | — | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 80 Aſpers | = | * a Piaſtre | — | 0 | 4 | 0 | |
| 100 Aſpers | = | a Caragrouch | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 10 Solotas | = | a Xeriff | — | 0 | 10 | 0 | |

ASIA.

## ARABIA. *Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Carret | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 5½ Carrets | = | a Caveer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12/2 |
| 7 Carrets | = | * a Comaſhee | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9/10 |
| 80 Carrets | = | a Larin | — | 0 | 0 | 10 | 1 |
| 18 Comaſhees | = | an Abyſs | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | 1/3 |
| 60 Comaſhees | = | * a Piaſtre | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 80 Caveers | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 100 Comaſhees | = | a Sequin | — | 0 | 7 | 6 | |
| 80 Larins | = | * a Tomond | — | 3 | 7 | 6 | |

## PERSIA. *Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Coz | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 4 Coz | = | a Biſti | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 8/8 |
| 10 Coz | = | a Shahee | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | |
| 20 Coz | = | a Mamooda | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 25 Coz | = | a Larin | — | 0 | 0 | 10 | |
| 4 Shahees | = | an Abaſhee | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | |
| 5 Abaſhees | = | an Or | — | 0 | 6 | 8 | |
| 12 Abaſhees | = | a Bovello | — | 0 | 16 | 0 | |
| 50 Abaſhees | = | * a Tomond | — | 3 | 6 | 8 | |

MOGUL.

## GUZURAT. *Surat, Cambay, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pecka | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15/64 |
| 2 Peckas | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/32 |
| 4 Pices | = | a Finam | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 5 Pices | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1/32 |
| 16 Pices | = | an Ana | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | 2 |
| 4 Anas | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | an Engliſh Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 24 Anas | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 | |
| 4 Pagodas | = | a Gold Rupee | — | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

ASIA.

MOGUL.

MALABAR.

*Bombay, Dabul, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Budgrook | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Budgrooks | = | * a Re | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 Rez | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 Pices | = | a Laree | — | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 20 Pices | = | a Quarter | | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 240 Rez | = | a Xeraphim | | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| 4 Quarters | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 3 |
| 14 Quarters | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| 60 Quarters | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 |

*Goa, Viſapour, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Re | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Rez | = | a Bazaraco | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Bazaracas | = | a Pecka | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Rez | = | a Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Vintins | = | a Laree | — | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 3 Larees | = | a Xeraphim | | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| 42 Vintins | = | a Tangu | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 4 Tangus | = | a Paru | — | 0 | 18 | 0 |
| 8 Tangus | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 |

COROMANDEL. *Madraſs, Pondicherry, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Caſh | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 Caſh | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Viz | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Pices | = | a Pical | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 8 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 10 Fanams | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 2 Rupees | = | an Engliſh Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 36 Fanams | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 |
| 4 Pagodas | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 |

BENGAL. *Callicut, Calcutta, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pice | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 Pices | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Pices | = | an Ana | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 10 Anas | = | a Fiano | — | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| 16 Anas | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 2 Rupees | = | a French Ecu | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 2 Rupees | = | an Engliſh Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 56 Anas | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 |

ASIA.

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Cori | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 800 Cori | = | a Fettee | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 125 Fettees | = | a Sataleer | — | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 250 Fettees | = | a Sooco | — | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| 500 Fettees | = | a Tutal | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 900 Fettees | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 2 Ticals | = | a Rial | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 4 Soocos | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 8 Sataleers | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |

CHINA. *Pekin, Canton, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Caxa | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 Caxa | = | a Candereen | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 Candereens | = | a Mace | — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 35 Candereens | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 2 Rupees | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 70 Candereens | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| 7 Maces | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 2 Rupees | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 10 Maces | = | a Tale | — | 0 | 6 | 8 |

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Piti | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Pitis | = | a Mace | — | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 15 Maces | = | an Ounce Silver | — | 0 | 4 | 10 |
| 20 Maces | = | a Tale | — | 0 | 6 | 8 |
| 30 Maces | = | an Ingot | — | 0 | 9 | 8 |
| 13 Ounces Silver | = | an Ounce Gold | — | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| 2 Ounces Gold | = | a Japaneſe | — | 6 | 6 | 0 |
| 2 Japaneſes | = | a Double | — | 12 | 12 | 0 |
| 21 Ounces Gold | = | * a Cattee | — | 66 | 3 | 0 |

AFRICA.

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| An Aſper | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Aſpers | = | a Medin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 24 Medins | = | an Italian Ducat | — | 0 | 3 | 4 |
| 80 Aſpers | = | * a Piaſtre | — | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| 30 Medins | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 96 Aſpers | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 32 Medins | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 200 Aſpers | = | a Sultanin | — | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| 70 Medins | = | a Pargo Dollar | — | 0 | 10 | 6 |

AFRICA.

## BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| An Aſper | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 3 Aſpers | = | a Medin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| 10 Aſpers | = | a Rial Old Plate | | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 2 Rials | = | a Double | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | |
| 4 Doubles | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 24 Medins | = | a Silver Chequin | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 30 Medins | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 180 Aſpers | = | a Zequin | — | 0 | 8 | 10 | |
| 15 Doubles | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

## MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Saliee, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fluce | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 24 Fluces | = | a Blanquil | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 4 Blanquils | = | an Ounce | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 7 Blanquils | = | an Octavo | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 14 Blanquils | = | a Quarto | — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 2 Quartos | = | a Medio | — | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 28 Blanquils | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 54 Blanquils | = | a Xequin | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |
| 100 Blanquils | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

AMERICA.

WEST INDIES.

## ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Halfpenny | | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 2 Halfpence | = | * a Penny | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 7½ Pence | = | a Bit | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | |
| 12 Pence | = | * a Shilling | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 75 Pence | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 7 Shillings | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 20 Shillings | = | * a Pound | — | 0 | 14 | 3 | |
| 24 Shillings | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |
| 30 Shillings | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 | |

## FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Half Sol | | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 2 Half Sols | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 7½ Sols | = | a Half Scalin | | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 15 Sols | = | a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | |
| 7 Livres | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 8 Livres | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 4 | 10 | |
| 26 Livres | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |
| 32 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | | 1 | 0 | 0 | |

AMERICA. CONTINENT.

ENGLISH. *Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *A Penny | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 12 Pence | = | * a Shilling | — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 20 Shillings | = | * a Pound | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Pound | | | | | | |
| 3 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 4 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 5 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 6 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 7 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 8 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 9 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 10 Pounds | | | | | | |

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

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*Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| * A Denier | | |
| 12 Deniers | = | * a Sol |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre |
| 2 Livres | | |
| 3 Livres | | |
| 4 Livres | | |
| 5 Livres | | |
| 6 Livres | | |
| 7 Livres | | |
| 8 Livres | | |
| 9 Livres | | |
| 10 Livres | | |

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold or Silver Coins that are imported.

*Note.* For all the *Spaniſh*, *Portugueſe*, *Dutch*, and *Daniſh* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the WEST INDIES, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

# A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, and INVENTIONS; ALSO, The ÆRA, the COUNTRY, and WRITINGS of LEARNED MEN;

The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analyſis or Outlines of General Hiſtory, from the Creation to the preſent Time.

Bef. Chriſt.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
4003 The birth of Cain, the firſt who was born of a woman.
3017 Enoch, for his piety, is tranſlated into Heaven.
2348 The old world is deſtroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's poſterity, upon which God miraculouſly confounds their language, and thus diſperſes them into different nations.

About the ſame time, Noah is, with great probability, ſuppoſed to have parted from his rebellious offſpring, and to have led a colony of ſome of the more tractable into the Eaſt, and there either he or one of his ſucceſſors to have founded the ancient Chineſe monarchy.

2234 The celeſtial obſervations are begun at Babylon, the city which firſt gave birth to learning and the ſciences.
2188 Miſraim, the ſon of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which laſted 1663 years, down to its conqueſt by Cambyſes, in 525 before Chriſt.
2059 Ninus, the ſon of Belus, founds the kingdom of Aſſyria, which laſted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Aſſyrians of Babylon, thoſe of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes
1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years ſojourning.
1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are deſtroyed for their wickedneſs, by fire from Heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents the letters.
1715 Prometheus firſt ſtruck fire from flints.
1635 Joſeph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Geneſis, containing a period of 2369 years.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God firſt high-prieſt of the Iſraelites.
1571 Moſes, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.
1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moſes performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Iſraelites, beſides children; which completed the 430 years of ſojourning. They miraculouſly paſs through the Red Sea, and come to the Deſert of Sinai, where Moſes receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and ſets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

1485 The firſt ſhip that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1453 The firſt Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five firſt books of Moſes, are written in the land of Moab, where he died in the year following, aged 110.
1451 The Iſraelites, after ſojourning in the Wilderneſs forty years, are led under Joſhua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themſelves, after having ſubdued the natives; and the period of the ſabbatical year commences.
1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave riſe to the Trojan war, and ſiege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
1048 David ſole king of Iſrael.
1004 The Temple is ſolemnly dedicated by Solomon.
896 Elijah, the prophet, is tranſlated to Heaven.
894 Money firſt made of gold and ſilver at Argos.
869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, firſt king of the Romans.
720 Samaria taken, after three years ſiege, and the kingdom of Iſrael finiſhed, by Salmanaſar, king of Aſſyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
The firſt eclipſe of the moon on record.
658 Byzantium (now Conſtantinople), built by a colony of Athenians.
604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, ſome Phœnicians ſailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
600 Thales of Miletus, travels into Egypt, conſults the prieſts of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, aſtronomy, and philoſophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipſes, gives general notions of the univerſe, and maintains that one ſupreme intelligence regulates all its motions.
Maps, globes, and the ſigns of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the ſcholar of Thales.
597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
587 The city of Jeruſalem taken, after a ſiege of 18 months.
562 The firſt comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable ſcaffold.
559 Cyrus the firſt king of Perſia.
538 The kingdom of Babylon finiſhed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, iſſues an edict for the return of the Jews.
534 The firſt tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library firſt founded.
515 The ſecond Temple at Jeruſalem is finiſhed under Darius.
509 Tarquin, the ſeventh and laſt king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two conſuls, and other republican magiſtrates, till the battle of Pharſalia, being a ſpace of 461 years.
504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occaſion to the Perſian invaſion of Greece.
486 Æſchylus the Greek poet, firſt gains the prize of tragedy.
481 Xerxes the Great, king of Perſia, begins his expedition againſt Greece.
458 Ezra is ſent from Babylon to Jeruſalem, with the captive Jews and the veſſels of gold and ſilver, &c. being ſeventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
454 The Romans ſend to Athens for Solon's laws.
451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
430 The hiſtory of the Old Teſtament finiſhes about this time.
Malachi the laſt of the prophets.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the ſoul, and a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, for which, and other ſublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who ſoon after repent, and erect to his memory a ſtatue of braſs.
331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Perſia, and other nations of Aſia. 323, Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
285 Dionyſius, of Alexandria, began his aſtronomical æra on Monday June 26, being the

the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.

284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.

269 The first coining of silver at Rome.

264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.

260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.

237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.

218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 77 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but being amused by his women, does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.

190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.

168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.

167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.

163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.

146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, is razed to the ground by the Romans.

135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.

52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.

47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.

The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.

45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.

The solar year introduced by Cæsar.

44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate house.

31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Anthony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.

30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Anthony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.

27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.

Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.

The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace, and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

A. C.

12 ——— Disputes with the Doctors in the temple;

29 ——— is baptized in the wilderness by John;

33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock, P. M.

His Resurrection on Sunday, April 5: his Ascension, Thursday, May 14.

36 St. Paul converted.

39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.

Pontius Pilate kills himself.

40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.

43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.

44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.

49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.

51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.

52 The council of the apostles at Jerusalem.

55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.

59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.

——— Persecutes the Druids in Britain.

61 Boadicia, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.

62 St. Paul is sent in bonds to Rome—writes his Epistles between 51 and 66.

63 The Acts of the Apostles written.

Chriſtianity is ſuppoſed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or ſome of his diſciples, about this time.

64 Rome ſet on fire, and burned for ſix days; upon which began (under Nero) the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.

67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.

70 Whilſt the factious Jews are deſtroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the Roman general, takes Jeruſalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to paſs over it.

83 The philoſophers expelled Rome by Domitian.

85 Julius Agricola, governor of South-Britain, to protect the civilized Britons from the incurſions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and firſt ſails round Britain, which he diſcovers to be an iſland.

96 St. John the Evangeliſt wrote his Revelation—his Goſpel in 97.

121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the ſouthern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcaſtle and Carliſle; but this alſo proving ineffectual, Pollius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick.

135 The ſecond Jewiſh war ends, when they were all baniſhed Judea.

139 Juſtin writes his firſt apology for the Chriſtians.

141 A number of hereſies appear about this time.

152 The emperor Antoninus Pius ſtops the perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.

217 The Septuagint ſaid to be found in a caſk.

222 About this time the Roman empire begins to ſink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their eruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to moleſt the empire.

260 Valerius is taken priſoner by Sapor, king of Perſia, and flayed alive.

274 Silk firſt brought from India: the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by ſome monks, 551; firſt worn by the clergy in England, 1534.

291 Two emperors, and two Cæſars, march to defend the four quarters of the empire.

306 Conſtantine the Great begins his reign.

308 Cardinals firſt began.

313 The tenth perſecution ends by an edict of Conſtantine, who favours the Chriſtians, and gives full liberty to their religion.

314 Three biſhops, or fathers, are ſent from Britain to aſſiſt at the council of Arles.

325 The firſt general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, againſt Arius, where was compoſed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.

328 Conſtantine removes the ſeat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforwards called Conſtantinople.

331 ——— orders all the heathen temples to be deſtroyed.

363 The Roman emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jeruſalem.

364 The Roman empire is divided into the eaſtern (Conſtantinople the capital) and weſtern (of which Rome continued to be the capital) each being now under the government of different emperors.

400 Bells invented by biſhop Paulinus, of Campagnia.

404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.

406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, ſpread into France and Spain, by a conceſſion of Honorius, emperor of the Weſt.

410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Viſi-Goths.

412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.

420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.

426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; adviſing the Britons to arm in their own defence, and truſt to their own valour.

446 The Britons now left to themſelves, are greatly harraſſed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no aſſiſtance from that quarter.

447 Attila (ſurnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravage the Roman empire.

449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, againſt the Scots and Picts.

455 The

455 The Saxons having repulſed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to eſtabliſh themſelves in Kent, under Hengiſt.
476 The weſtern empire is finiſhed, 523 years after the battle of Pharſalia; upon the ruins of which ſeveral new ſtates ariſe in Italy and other parts, conſiſting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians, under whom literature is extinguiſhed, and the works of the learned are deſtroyed.
496 Clovis, king of France, baptized, and Chriſtianity begins in that kingdom.
508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
513 Conſtantinople beſieged by Vitalianus, whoſe fleet is burned by a ſpeculum of braſs.
516 The computing of time by the Chriſtian æra is introduced by Dionyſius the monk.
529 The code of Juſtinian, the eaſtern emperor, is publiſhed.
557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Aſia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
581 Latin ceaſed to be ſpoken about this time in Italy.
596 Auguſtine the monk comes into England with forty monks.
606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the conceſſions of Phocas, emperor of the Eaſt.
622 Mahomet, a falſe prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 44th year of his age, and 10th of his miniſtry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their deſcent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the Flight.
637 Jeruſalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
653 The Saracens now extend their conqueſts on every ſide, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity.
664 Glaſs invented in England by Benalt, a monk.
685 The Britons, after a brave ſtruggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
726 The controverſy about images begins, and occaſions many inſurrections in the eaſtern empire.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Chriſt began to be uſed in hiſtory.
749 The race of Abbas became caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris, is made the capital for the caliphs of the houſe of Abbas.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the weſtern empire; gives the preſent names to the winds and months; endeavours to reſtore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet diſpoſed for it, being ſolely engroſſed in military enterprizes.
826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his ſubjects, for being a Chriſtian.
828 Egbert, king of Weſſex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fiſh.
838 The Scots and Picts have a deciſive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kennet, which begins the ſecond period of the Scottiſh hiſtory.
867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
896 Alfred the Great, after ſubduing the Daniſh invaders (againſt whom he fought 56 battles by ſea and land), compoſes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the univerſity of Oxford about this time.
915 The univerſity of Cambridge founded.
936 The Saracen empire is divided by uſurpation into ſeven kingdoms.
975 Pope Boniface VII. is depoſed and baniſhed for his crimes.
979 Coronation oaths ſaid to be firſt uſed in England.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto uſed.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleſlaus, the firſt king of Poland.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in uſe; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.
1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.

1015 Children forbidden by law to be ſold by their parents in England.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets poſſeſſion of England.
1040 The Danes, after ſeveral engagements with various ſucceſs, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hoſtile manner.
1041 The Saxon line reſtored under Edward the Confeſſor.
1043 The Turks, (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, ſerving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take poſſeſſion of Perſia.
1054 Leo IX. the firſt pope that kept up an army.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunſinane, and marries the princeſs Margaret, ſiſter to Edgar Atheling.
1065 The Turks take Jeruſalem from the Saracens.
1066 The battle of Haſtings fought, between Harold and William, (furnamed the Baſtard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and ſlain, after which William becomes king of England.
1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Muſical notes invented.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German biſhops. Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to the pope, towards the end of January.
1076 Juſtices of the peace firſt appointed in England.
1080 Doomſday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.
The Tower of London built by ditto, to curb his Engliſh ſubjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon or Engliſh language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land is begun under ſeveral Chriſtian princes, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.
1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.
1118 The order of the Knights Templars inſtituted, to defend the ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, and to protect Chriſtian ſtrangers.
1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
1163 London bridge, conſiſting of 19 ſmall arches, firſt built of ſtone.
1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
1172 Henry II. king of England (and firſt of the Plantagenets), takes poſſeſſion of Ireland; which from that period, has been governed by an Engliſh viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
1176 England is divided, by Henry, into ſix circuits, and juſtice is diſpenſed by itinerant judges.
1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.
1181 The laws of England are digeſted about this time by Glanville.
1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe
1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
1192 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladine's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.
1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
Surnames now begin to be uſed; firſt among the nobility.
1208 London incorporated, and obtained their firſt charter for electing their Lord-Mayor and other magiſtrates, from king John.
1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by king John and the barons of England.
Court of Common Pleas eſtabliſhed.
1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gingis-Kan, emerge from the northern parts of Aſia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and deſolation wherever they march.
1233 The Inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.
The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.

1253 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alonzo, king of Caſtile.
1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finiſhes the empire of the Saracens.
1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the Weſtern Iſles.
1264 According to ſome writers, the commons of England were not ſummoned to parliament till this period.
1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.
1282 Lewelyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
1284 Edward II. born at Carnarvon, is the firſt prince of Wales.
1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is diſputed by twelve candidates, who ſubmit their claims to the arbitration of Edward, king of England: which lays the foundation of a long and deſolating war between both nations.
1293 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver-hafted knives, ſpoons and cups, a great luxury.
Tallow candles ſo great a luxury, that ſplinters of wood were uſed for lights.
Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.
1302 The mariner's compaſs invented, or improved by Givia, of Naples.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs cantons.
1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn ſociety eſtabliſhed.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave and ſeparate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1320 Gold firſt coined in Chriſtendom; 1344 ditto in England.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettle at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with an aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder and guns firſt invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of by John Vaneck.
Heralds college inſtituted in England.
1344 The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots, is taken priſoner.
1349 The order of the Garter inſtituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and conſiſts of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the ſame as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſon are taken priſoners by Edward the Black Prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France firſt quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, begins about this time to oppoſe the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteneſs and ſpirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1586 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
Windſor caſtle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotſpur and the earl of Douglas.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.
1399 Weſtminſter Abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Weſtminſter Hall ditto.
Order of the Bath inſtituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725; conſiſting of 38 knights.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
1411 The univerſity of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.

1428 The ſiege of Orleans, the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France.
1430 About this time Laurantius of Harleim invented the art of printing, which he practiſed with ſeparate wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of caſting the types in matrices. Frederic Corſellis began to print at Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fuſile types in 1474.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eaſtern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conſtantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The univerſity of Glaſgow, in Scotland, founded.
1460 Engraving and etching in copper invented.
1477 The univerſity of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
1483 Richard III. king of England, and laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, after a conteſt of 30 years, and the loſs of 100,000 men.
1486 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.
1489 Maps and ſea charts firſt brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obſerved by the Spaniards, whoſe clergy employ the powers of the Inquiſition, with all its tortures; and in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the oppoſite coaſt of Africa, from whence they originally came.
1492 America firſt diſcovered by Columbus, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Spain.
1494 Algebra firſt known in Europe.
1497 The Portugueſe firſt ſail to the Eaſt-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſius, from whom it has its name.
1499 N. America ditto, for Henry VII. by Cabot.
1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into ſix circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1505 Shillings firſt coined in England.
1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
1518 Magellan, in the ſervice of Spain, firſt diſcovers the ſtraits of that name in South America.
1520 Henry VIII for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
1529 The name of Proteſtant takes its riſe from the Reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
1534 The Reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.
1537 Religious houſes diſſolved by ditto.
1539 The firſt Engliſh edition of the Bible authorized; the preſent tranſlation finiſhed 1611.
About this time cannon began to be uſed in ſhips.
1543 Silk ſtockings firſt worn by the French king; firſt worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the ſteel frame for weaving invented by the rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins firſt uſed in England, before which time the ladies uſed ſkewers.
1544 Good lands let in England at one ſhilling per acre.
1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
1546 Firſt law in England eſtabliſhing the intereſt of money at ten per cent.
1549 Lords lieutenants of counties inſtituted in England.
1550 Horſe guards inſtituted in England.

1555 The

1555 The Ruſſian company eſtabliſhed in England.
1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
1563 Knives firſt made in England.
1569 Royal Exchange firſt built.
1572 The great maſſacre of Proteſtants at Paris.
1579 The Dutch ſhake off the Spaniſh yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
Engliſh Eaſt-India company incorporated—eſtabliſhed 1600.
———— Turkey company incorporated.
1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the firſt Engliſh circumnavigator.
Parochial regiſter firſt appointed in England.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted 15.
1583 Tobacco firſt brought from Virginia into England
1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years impriſonment.
1388 The Spaniſh Armada deſtroyed by Drake and other Engliſh admirals.
Henry IV. paſſes the edict of Nantz, tolerating the Proteſtants.
1589 Coaches firſt introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increaſed to 1000, in 1770.
1590 Band of penſioners inſtituted in England.
1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
1597 Watches firſt brought into England from Germany.
1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the laſt of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and firſt of the Stuarts) as her ſucceſſor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1605 The Gunpowder plot diſcovered at Weſtminſter; being a project of the Roman catholics to blow up the king and both houſes of parliament.
1606 Oaths of allegiance firſt adminiſtered in England.
1608 Galileo, of Florence, firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Saturn, by the teleſcope, then juſt invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravilliac, a prieſt.
1611 Baronets firſt created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier, of Marcheſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Engliſhman, diſcovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
1620 The broad ſilk manufactory from raw ſilk, introduced into England.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon, Charles I.
The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Engliſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies, is planted.
1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scottiſh ſubjects, on which their army, under general Leſley, enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh Proteſtants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures, which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c. firſt impoſed by parliament.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the protectorſhip.
1655 The Engliſh, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the protectorſhip by his ſon Richard.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.

1660 The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London, by Charles II.
1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two ſeparate governments.
1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the Engliſh.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 perſons.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes, and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey.
1668 ——— ditto, Aix la Chapelle.
St. James's Park planted, and made a thoroughfare for public uſe by Charles II.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay Company incorporated.
1672 Lewis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their ſluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.
African company eſtabliſhed.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearneſs to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued viſible from Nov. 3, to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennſylvania.
1683 India ſtock ſold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is ſucceeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. raiſes a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamouſly revoked by Lewis XIV. and the Proteſtants cruelly perſecuted.
1687 The palace of Verſailles, near Paris, finiſhed by Lewis XIV.
1688 The Revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.
1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and ſon-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viſcount Dundee ſtands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackey, at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, diſperſe.
The land-tax paſſed in England.
The toleration act paſſed in ditto.
Several biſhops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William againſt James, in Ireland.
1691 The war in Ireland finiſhed by the ſurrender of Limerick to William.
1692 The Engliſh and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Ruſſel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muſkets firſt uſed by the French againſt the Confederates at the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England eſtabliſhed by king William.
The firſt public lottery was drawn this year.
Maſſacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops.
1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties inſtituted in England.
1696 The peace of Ryſwick.
1699 The Scots ſettled a colony at the iſthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St. Germains, in the 68th year of his age.
1701 Pruſſia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the Goſpel in foreign parts eſtabliſhed.
1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is ſucceeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II. who, with the emperor and States General, renews the war againſt France and Spain.

1704 Gib-

1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards, by admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim, won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, againſt the French.
The court of Exchequer inſtituted in England.
1706 The treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, ſigned July 22.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
1707 The firſt Britiſh parliament.
1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig miniſtry for others more favourable to the intereſt of her ſuppoſed brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The Engliſh South-Sea company began.
1712 Duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.
1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-Britain, and Hudſon's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were alſo confirmed to the ſaid crown by this treaty.
1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is ſucceeded by George I.
Intereſt reduced to five per cent.
1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Lewis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in Sept. under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the ſurrender of Preſton, both in November, when the rebels diſperſe.
1716 The Pretender married to the princeſs Sobieſki, grand-daughter of John Sobieſki, late king of Poland.
An act paſſed for ſeptennial parliaments.
1719 The Miſſiſſippi ſcheme at its height in France.
Lombe's ſilk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one-eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the reſt; and in 24 hours, it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine ſilk thread.
The South-Sea ſcheme in England begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite ſunk about September 29.
1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is ſucceeded by his only ſon, George II.
Inoculation firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.
Ruſſia, formerly a dukedom, is now eſtabliſhed as an empire.
1732 Kouli Khan uſurps the Perſian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred thirty-one millions ſterling.
Several public-ſpirited gentlemen begin the ſettlement of Georgia, in North America.
1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his ſoldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a ſmuggler, is himſelf hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
1738 Weſtminſter-Bridge, conſiſting of fifteen arches, begun; finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.
1739 Letters of marque iſſued out in Britain againſt Spain, July 21, and war declared October 23.
1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the Engliſh and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
1744 War declared againſt France. Commodore Anſon returns from his voyage round the world.
1745 The allies loſe the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
1746 Britiſh Linen Company erected.
1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a reſtitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all ſides.
1749 The intereſt of the Britiſh funds reduced to three per cent,
Britiſh herring fiſhery incorporated.

1751 Fre-

1751 Frederic, prince of Wales, father to his preſent majeſty, died.
Antiquarian ſociety at London incorporated.
1752 The new ſtyle introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
1753 The Britiſh Muſeum erected at Montagu houſe.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, inſtituted in London.
1755 Liſbon deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1756 146 Engliſhmen are confined in the Black Hole at Calcutta, in the Eaſt Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine ſociety eſtabliſhed at London.
1757 Damien attempted to aſſaſſinate the French king.
1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the Engliſh.
1760 King George II. dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his preſent majeſty, who, on the 22d of September, 1761, married the princeſs Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Black-Friars bridge, conſiſting of nine arches, begun; finiſhed 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll.
1762 War declared againſt Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Ruſſia, is depoſed, impriſoned, and murdered.
American philoſophical ſociety eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia.
George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12.
1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extenſive provinces of Canada, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and part of Louiſiana, in North America; alſo the iſlands of Granada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the Weſt Indies.
1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr. Harriſon, for his diſcovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
1765 His majeſty's royal charter paſſed for incorporating the ſociety of artiſts.
An act paſſed annexing the ſovereignty of the iſland of Man to the crown of Great Britain.
1766 April 21, a ſpot or macula of the ſun, more than thrice the bigneſs of our earth, paſſed the ſun's centre.
1768 Academy of painting eſtabliſhed in London.
The Turks impriſon the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and declare war againſt that empire.
1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majeſty's ſhip the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made ſeveral important diſcoveries in the South Seas.
1772 The king of Sweden changes the conſtitution of that kingdom.
The Pretender marries a princeſs of Germany, grand-daughter of Thomas, late earl of Aylesbury.
The emperor of Germany, empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, ſtrip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themſelves, in violation of the moſt ſolemn treaties.
1773 Captain Phipps is ſent to explore the North Pole, but having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to diſcover a paſſage in that quarter proves fruitleſs.
The Jeſuits expelled from the pope's dominions, and ſuppreſſed by his bull, Aug. 25.
The Engliſh Eaſt India company having, by conqueſt or treaty, acquired the extenſive provinces of Bengal, Orixa, and Bahar, containing fifteen million of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their ſervants abroad, upon which government interferes, and ſends out judges, &c. for the better adminiſtration of juſtice.
The war between the Ruſſians and Turks proves diſgraceful to the latter, who loſe the iſlands in the Archipelago, and by ſea are every where unſucceſsful.
1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Ruſſians and Turks.
The Britiſh parliament having paſſed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the coloniſts, conſidering this as a grievance, deny the right of the Britiſh parliament to tax them.
Deputies from the ſeveral American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the firſt general congreſs, Sept. 5.
Firſt petition of Congreſs to the king, Nov.
1775 April 19. The firſt action happens in America between the king's troops and the Provincials at Lexington.

1775 May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
1776 March 17, The town of Boston evacuated by the king's troops.
An unsuccessful attempt, in July, made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant general Clinton, upon Charles Town, in South Carolina.
The Congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4.
The Americans are driven from Long Island, New York, in August, with great loss, and great numbers of them taken prisoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken possession of by the king's troops.
December 26, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners at Trenton.
Torture abolished in Poland.
1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.
1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.
The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expence in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.
The earl of Carlisle, William Eden, esq. and George Johnstone, esq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.
Philadelphia evacuated by the kings troops, June 18.
The congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners, unless the independence of the American colonies were first acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.
An engagement fought off Brest between the English fleet under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of the count d'Orvilliers, July 27.
Dominica taken by the French, Sept. 7.
Pondicherry surrenders to the arms of Great Britain, Oct. 17.
St. Lucia taken from the French, Dec. 28.
1779 St. Vincent's taken by the French.
Grenada taken by the French, July 3.
1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
The inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions.
Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, Jan. 8.
The same admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ships of the line, one more driven on shore, and another blown up, Jan. 16.
Three actions between admiral Rodney and the count de Guichen, in the West Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them decisive.
Charles Town, South-Carolina, surrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.
Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
The Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000 go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Papists, June 2.
That event followed by the most daring riots in the cities of London and Southwark, for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed by the interposition of the military, and many of the rioters tried and executed for felony.
Five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Aug. 8.
Earl Cornwallis obtains a signal victory over general Gates, near Camden, in South Carolina, in which above 1000 American prisoners are taken, Aug. 16.
Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, Sept. 3.
General Arnold deserts the service of the congress, escapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal service, Sept. 24.

Major

Major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army, hanged as a ſpy at Tappan, in the province of New York, Oct. 2.

Mr. Laurens is committed priſoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treaſon, October 4.

Dreadful hurricanes in the Weſt Indies, by which great devaſtation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other iſlands, Oct. 3 and 10.

A declaration of hoſtilities publiſhed againſt Holland, Dec. 20.

1781 The Dutch iſland of St. Euſtatia taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, Feb. 3. Retaken by the French, Nov. 27.

Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory, but with conſiderable loſs, over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15.

The iſland of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.

A bloody engagement fought between an Engliſh ſquadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger-bank, Auguſt 5.

Earl Cornwallis, with a conſiderable Britiſh army, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Waſhington, and count Rochambeau, at York-town, in Virginia, Oct. 19.

1782 Trincomale, on the iſland of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.

Minorca ſurrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, Feb. 5.

The iſland of St. Chriſtopher taken by the French, Feb. 12.

The iſland of Nevis, in the Weſt Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.

Montſerrat taken by the French, Feb. 22.

The houſe of commons addreſs the king againſt any farther proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, March 4, and reſolve, that that houſe would conſider all thoſe as enemies to his majeſty, and this country, who ſhould adviſe, or by any means attempt, the farther proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, for the purpoſe of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.

Admiral Rodney obtains a ſignal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Graſſe, near Dominica, in the Weſt Indies, April 12.

Admiral Hughes, with eleven ſhips, beat off, near the iſland of Ceylon, the French admiral Suffrein, with twelve ſhips of the line, after a ſevere engagement, in which both fleets loſt a great number of men, April 13.

The reſolution of the houſe of commons relating to John Wilkes, eſq and the Middleſex election, paſſed Feb. 17, 1769, reſcinded May 3.

The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legiſlation of Ireland, received the royal aſſent June 20.

The French took and deſtroyed the forts and ſettlements in Hudſon's Bay, Aug. 24.

The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.

Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 8.

Proviſional articles of peace ſigned at Paris between the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, by which the Thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majeſty to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates, Nov. 30.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majeſty, and the kings of France and Spain, ſigned at Verſailles, Jan. 20.

The order of St. Patrick inſtituted, Feb. 5.

Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, deſtroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28th.

Armiſtice betwixt Great Britain and Holland, Feb. 10.

Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept. 3.

1784 The city of London wait on the king with an addreſs of thanks for diſmiſſing the coalition miniſtry, Jan. 16.

The great ſeal ſtolen from the lord chancellor's houſe in Great Ormond-ſtreet, March 24.

The ratification of the peace with America arrived April 7.

The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.

The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Weſtminſter Abbey, May 26.

Proclamation for a public thankſgiving, July 2.

Mr. Lunardi aſcended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the firſt attempt of the kind in England, Sept. 15.

# MEN of LEARNING and GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flouriſhed is ſignified by* fl. *The Names in Italics, are thoſe who have given the beſt Engliſh Tranſlations, excluſive of School Books.*

Bef. Ch.
907 HOMER, the firſt profane writer and Greek poet, flouriſhed. *Pope.*
Heſiod, the Greek poet, ſuppoſed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*
884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poeteſs, fl. *Fawkes.*
558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
556 Æſop, the firſt Greek fabuliſt. *Croxal.*
548 Thales, the firſt Greek aſtronomer and geographer.
497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philoſophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addiſon.*
456 Æſchylus, the firſt Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *Weſt.*
413 Herodotus, of Greece, the firſt writer of profane hiſtory. *Littlebury.*
407 Ariſtophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*
406 Sophocles, ditto *Franklin. Potter.*
Confucius, the Chineſe philoſopher, fl.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy, in Greece.
391 Thucydides, the Greek hiſtorian. *Smith. Hobbes.*
361 Hippocrates, the Greek phyſician. *Cliſton.*
Democritus, the Greek philoſopher.
359 Xenophon, ditto, and hiſtorian. *Smith, Spelman, Aſkly, Fielding.*
348 Plato the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
336 Iſocrates, the Greek orator. *Dimſdale.*
332 Ariſtotle, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*
313 Demoſthenes, the Athenian orator, poiſoned himſelf. *Leland. Francis.*
288 Theophraſtus, the Greek philoſopher, and ſcholar of Ariſtotle. *Budgel.*
285 Theocritus, the firſt Greek paſtoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*
277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simſon.*
270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philoſophy in Greece. *Digby.*
264 Xeno, founder of the ſtoic philoſophy in ditto.
244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.
208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the ſtoic philoſopher.
124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman hiſtorian. *Hampton.*
54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
44 Julius Cæſar, the Roman hiſtorian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
Diodorus Siculus of Greece, the univerſal hiſtorian, fl. *Booth.*
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philoſopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
34 Salluſt, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon. Roſe.*
30 Dionyſius, of Halicarnaſſus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Spelman.*
19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden, Pitt, Warton.*
11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger, Dart.*
8 Horace, the Roman lyric and ſatiric poet. *Francis.*
A. C.
17 Livy, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hay.*
19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
20 Celſus, the Roman philoſopher and phyſician, fl. *Grieve.*
25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
33 Phædrus, the Roman fabuliſt. *Smart.*

45 Pater

45 Paterculus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Newcome.*
62 Perſius, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Brewſter.*
64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman, hiſtorian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*
Seneca, of Spain, the philoſopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Eſtrange.*
65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
79 Pliny, the elder, the Roman natural hiſtorian. *Holland.*
93 Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian. *Whiſton.*
94 Epictetus, the Greek ſtoic philoſopher, fl. Mrs. *Carter.*
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon.*
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
116 Pliny the younger, hiſtorical letters. *Melmoth, Orrery.*
117 Suetonius, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hughes.*
119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden, Langhorne.*
128 Juvenal, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Dryden.*
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and aſtronomer, fl.
150 Juſtin, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Turnbul.*
161 Arrian, the Roman hiſtorian and philoſopher, fl. *Rooke.*
167 Juſtin, of Samaria, the oldeſt Chriſtian author after the apoſtles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimſdale, Dryden, Franklin.*
Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philoſopher. *Collier, Elphinſtone.*
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius, of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
254 Origen, a Chriſtian father of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Hart.*
238 Cyprian, of Carthage, ſuffered martyrdom. *Marſhal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer. *Hanmer.*
379 Baſil, biſhop of Cæſarea.
389 Gregory Nazienzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman hiſtorian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philoſopher. *Bellamy, Preſton.*
529 Procopius, of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illuſtrious liſt of ancient, or, as they are ſtyled, Claſſic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, thoſe two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a ſmall part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of thoſe fierce illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, ſubverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined ſoon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Conſtantinople alone had eſcaped the ravages of the Barbarians; and to the few literati who ſheltered themſelves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preſervation of thoſe valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, ſucceeded worſe than Gothic ignorance—the ſuperſtition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the ſpace of a thouſand years; a period which hiſtorians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century, from which memorable æra a race of men have ſprung up in a new ſoil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at leaſt equal the greateſt geniuſes of antiquity. Of theſe our own countrymen have the reputation of the firſt rank, with whoſe names we ſhall finiſh our liſt.

A. C.

735 Bede a prieſt of Northumberland; hiſtory of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; hiſtory o England.

1292 Roger

1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Merns-ſhire, Hiſtory of Scotland.
1400 Geoffroy Chaucer, London; the father of Engliſh poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas Moore, London; hiſtory, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; hiſtory of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonſhire; hiſtory of Scotland, Pſalms of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenſer, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakſpeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1622 John Napier, of Marcheſton, Scotland; diſcoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Camden, London; hiſtory and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philoſophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Juſtice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
1638 Ben Johnſon, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Selden, Suſſex; antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; diſcovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miſcellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London; Paradiſe Loſt, Regained, and various other pieces in verſe and proſe.
Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltſhire; Hiſtory of the Civil Wars in England.
1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
1677 Reverend Dr. Iſaac Barrow, London; natural philoſophy, mathematics, and ſermons.
1680 Samuel Butler, Worceſterſhire; Hudibras, a burleſque poem.
1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, ſpeeches, letters, &c.
1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somerſetſhire; intellectual Syſtem.
1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorſetſhire; Hiſtory of Phyſic.
1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philoſophy and theology.
Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.
1694 John Tillotſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 ſermons.
1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics, and polite literature.
1701 John Dryden, Northamptonſhire; 27 tragedies and comedies, ſatiric poems, Virg.
1704 John Locke, Somerſetſhire; philoſophy, government, and theology.
1705 John Ray, Eſſex; botany, natural philoſophy, and divinity.
1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
1713 Ant. Aſh. Cooper, earl of Shaftſbury; characteriſtics.
1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, biſhop of Saliſbury; hiſtory, biography, divinity, &c.
1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonſhire; ſeven tragedies, tranſlation of Lucan's Pharſalia.
1719 Rev. John Flamſtead, Derbyſhire; mathematics, and aſtronomy.
Joſeph Addiſon, Wiltſhire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and aſtronomy.
1721 Matthew Prior, London; poems and politics.
1724 William Wollaſton, Staffordſhire; Religion of Nature delineated.
1727 Sir Iſaac Newton, Lincolnſhire; mathematics, geometry, aſtronomy, optics.
1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordſhire; ſeven dramatic pieces.
1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearns-ſhire; medicine, coins, politics.
1742 Dr. Edmund Halley; natural philoſophy, aſtronomy; navigation.
Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkſhire; claſſical learning, criticiſm.
1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, tranſlation of Homer.
1745 Reverend Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
1746 Colin M'Laurin, Argyleſhire; algebra, view of Newton's philoſophy.
1748 James Thomſon, Roxburghſhire; Seaſons, and other poems, five tragedies.

1748 Re-

1748 Reverend Dr. Iſaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philoſophy, pſalms, hymns, ſermons, &c.
Dr. Francis Hutcheſon, Airſhire; ſyſtem of moral philoſophy.
1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkſhire; Life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphyſics, and natural philoſophy.
1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philoſophy, metaphyſics, and politics.
Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poiſons, plague, ſmall-pox, medicine, precepts.
Henry Fielding, Somerſetſhire; Tom Jones, Joſeph Andrews, &c.
1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
1761 Thomas Sherlock, biſhop of London; 69 ſermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadley, biſhop of Wincheſter; ſermons and controverſy.
Samuel Richardſon, London; Grandiſon, Clariſſa, Pamela.
Reverend Dr. John Leland, Lancaſhire; Anſwer to Deiſtical Writers.
1765 Reverend Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, 3 tragedies.
Robert Simſon, Glaſgow; conic ſections, Euclid, Apollonius.
1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne; 45 ſermons, Sentimental Journey, Triſtram Shandy.
1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnſhire; harmonics and optics.
1770 Reverend Dr. Jortin; Life of Eraſmus, Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, and ſermons.
Dr. Mark Akenſide, Newcaſtle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollett, Dumbartonſhire; Hiſtory of England, novels, tranſlations.
1771 Thomas Gray, Profeſſor of Modern Hiſtory, Cambridge; poems.
1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Cheſterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worceſterſhire; Hiſtory of England.
1774 Oliver Goldſmith; poems, eſſays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, biſhop of Rocheſter; Annotations on the New Teſtament, &c.
1775 Dr. John Hawkſworth; eſſays.
1776 David Hume, Merſe; Hiſtory of England, and eſſays.
James Ferguſon, Aberdeenſhire; aſtronomy.
1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.
William Warburton, biſhop of Glouceſter; Divine Legation of Moſes, and various other works.
1780 Sir William Blackſtone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkſhire; philoſophy and medicine.
James Harris, Hermes, Philological Inquiries, and Philoſophical Arrangements.
1782 Thomas Newton, biſhop of Briſtol, Litchfield; diſcourſes on the prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxboroughſhire; Diſeaſes of the Army.
Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticiſm, Sketches of the Hiſtory of Man.
1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkſhire; anatomy.
1784 Dr. Samuel Johnſon, Litchfield; Engliſh Dictionary, Biography, Eſſays, Poetry.
Died Dec. 13, aged 71.
1785 William Whitehead, poet laureat; poems and plays.

FINIS.